

A Comparison of Life Satisfaction,  
Job Satisfaction, and Happiness  
using Demographic Variables

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### ABSTRACT

This study examined the interrelationships among life satisfaction, job satisfaction, and happiness and the selected demographic variables of income, age, marital status, education, sex, job tenure, job title, type of school, and location of employment. Survey data were collected from 1,993 elementary, high school, and community college teachers in the southern Ontario area, representing ten public school boards, three Roman Catholic school boards and three community colleges.

Several theories were utilized in developing thirteen hypotheses and eleven experimental hypotheses. A thorough review of the literature (to January, 1980) was undertaken and major conclusions noted.

Hoppock's (1935) Job Satisfaction Measure, Gurin, Veroff, and Feld's (1960) Happiness Scale, and Converse and Robinson's (1965) Life Satisfaction Scale were used as the instrument. Chi-square analysis was employed as the statistical method.

Indicative of the findings: the level of education taught was significantly related to all three organizational variables, sex was unrelated to life satisfaction though positively related to job satisfaction, and income was found not to be related to either happiness or life satisfaction.

A minority of findings were contrary to hypothesized relationships. Specifically, age was found to be unrelated to any of the three organizational variables, and educational achievement was not significantly related to happiness.

A model was developed to illustrate the interrelationships of the organizational and demographic variables. This model was designed specifically to reflect teacher attitudes, though it may have reasonable application for other relatively homogeneous groups of employees such as nurses, engineers, or social workers.

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## INTRODUCTION

Job satisfaction has been studied in great detail by American organizational psychologists. Locke (1976) estimated that by 1972, 3,350 articles or dissertations had been written on the subject. By contrast, very few studies (e.g. Iris and Barrett, 1972; Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers, 1976; Hulin, 1969; Weaver, 1978; Near, Rice, and Hunt, 1978) have investigated the correlations between job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and happiness. Even fewer reports exist (e.g. Hulin, 1969) in which any attempt was made to provide information on samples that were very homogeneous, the authors preferring instead to consider heterogeneous cross samples of average, general populations.

The purpose of the present study was to explore further the correlations between job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and happiness by considering their interrelationships with demographic variables. A homogeneous sample (teachers) served as the respondent base for the study.

CHAPTER I  
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

1. Definitions

Happiness and life satisfaction are apparently so innately obvious that few reputable authors have attempted to adequately define the variables in the literature. Dictionary phrases such as "attitudes on how things are these days" and "contentment with one's lot" are the predominant statements used by researchers to define the two terms. Fromm (1947) in his book 'Man for Himself', stated that "happiness is the indication that man has found the answer to the problem of human existence: the productive realization of his potentialities..... Happiness is the criterion of excellence in the art of living" (p.189). However, this attempt lends little that is relevant to the consideration of the variable.

Job satisfaction, on the other hand, has lent itself to many attempts at definition. Singh and Snivatsawa (1972) believe job satisfaction to be a pleasant and positive attitude possessed by an employee toward his job-life. Vroom (1964) employs the basic concept of Valence in explaining job satisfaction while Blum and Naylor (1968) consider the variable is the result of the various attitudes the employee holds towards his job and life in general. Many other definitions abound, however, most follow a similar central theme - attitude toward the job.

## 2. Theory and Related Research

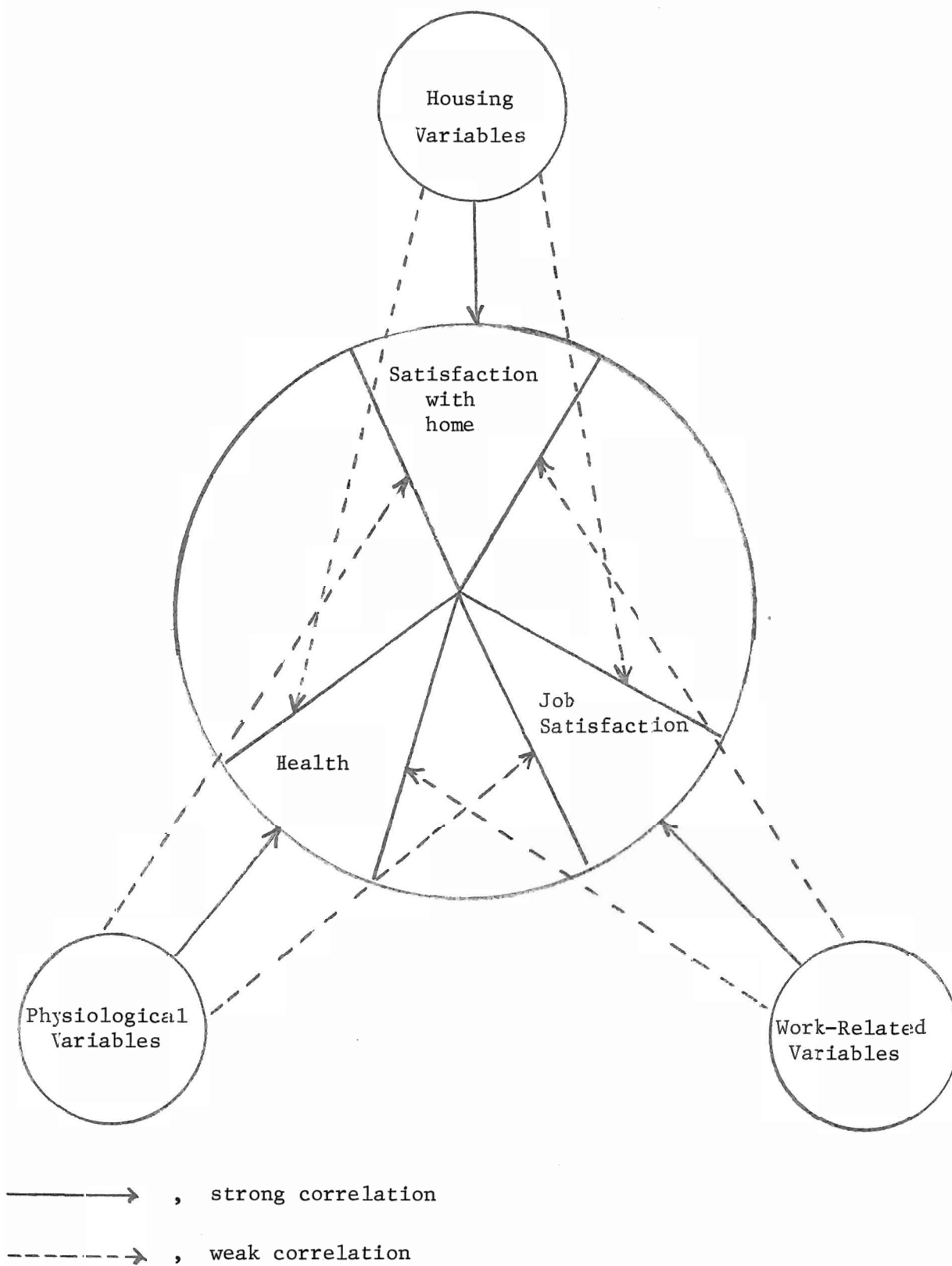
This section will be separated into two major divisions.

First, relevant theory will be considered, specifically, Near, Rice, and Hunt's (1978) multiple component of life satisfaction, Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell's (1957) modified expectation theory, Kasl's (1973) person-environment congruency model, Herzberg, Mausner, and Synderman's (1959) two-factor theory of motivation, Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy theory, Porter's (1961) modified need hierarchy theory, Smith, Kendall, and Hulin's (1969) economic-frame-of-reference theory, Adam's (1963) equity theory, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, Hulin and Smith's (1964) covariance theory, and Grassie and Carss (1978) teacher satisfaction model.

Second, research findings from the educational, sociological, psychological, and managerial sectors will be considered. Primary use was made of Near, Rice, and Hunt's (1978) analysis of job and life satisfaction by demographic variables and Weaver's (1978) ratiocination of happiness and job satisfaction among both males and females. Also, often referred to were Gurin, Veroff, and Feld (1960) whose article was the first extensive survey into happiness with a nationwide probability sample, Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965) who performed follow-up work to the research of Gurin, et al., and the 1968 Survey Research Centre data (Robinson, 1969) that considered questions on life satisfaction using similar variables to those of Gurin et al.

Near, Rice and Hunt's (1978) multiple component model of life satisfaction and associated first and second order determinants provides a useful framework for analyzing the components that delimit life

FIGURE I  
MULTIPLE COMPONENT MODEL OF LIFE SATISFACTION



satisfaction. This model is illustrated in Figure I, with first level determinants represented by solid arrows and second level determinants represented by dotted arrows.

The entire circle represents overall life satisfaction. Those portions labelled job satisfaction, health, and satisfaction with home, represent correlations between each of these components and overall life satisfaction. The model shows that job satisfaction represents only a small portion of the total life satisfaction concept.

The model further proposes that each component of life satisfaction is associated with what can be called first level determinants.

These are seen as the strongest and most direct determinants of satisfaction with a given component of life satisfaction. For example, work-related variables are seen as the first level determinants of job satisfaction.

The model has been simplified by listing only three components of life satisfaction, along with their first level determinants. However, there are many more life satisfaction components (for example, Andrews and Withey, 1974, studied 30 separate domains of life satisfaction). Each of these is thought to have a set of variables that functions as first level determinants. Further, each first level determinant serves as a second level determinant for each of the other components of life satisfaction.

A second useful theory for this endeavour is Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell's (1957) modified expectation theory. These

authors hypothesized greater job satisfaction for workers with realistic work expectations, since these expectations are more likely to be satisfied on the job. Realistic work expectations may be considered to develop as a result of age (coupled with the previous work experience in several organizations) and/or as a result of tenure (current experience gained in one organization).

Herzberg, et al., (1957) found a U-shaped relationship between job satisfaction and the age of the employee. When individuals started their first job, satisfaction was found to be high. However, job satisfaction soon started to decline until people reached their late twenties or early thirties, when once again it began to rise. This increase in worker satisfaction continued for the remaining years of employment. Job Tenure was also found by these authors to fit a similar U-shaped relationship with job satisfaction. The level of job satisfaction drops for the first few years of employment, after an initial high at the beginning of the first year. After remaining low for a number of years, job satisfaction then starts to rise and continues to rise while the individual remains at the job.

Herzberg, et al.'s (1957) explanation for this U-shaped relationship was that if initial high work expectations were not fulfilled, it would result in a drop in overall satisfaction with the job. However, as the employee becomes more experienced and mature, he adjusts his ambitions so that they become far more realistic. Since these new goals are more attainable than the former ones, job satisfaction tends to increase.

This U-shaped relationship has received some criticism, in that it cannot be assumed to work for all individuals under all conditions.

Gibson and Klein (1970), working with blue collar workers, found a negative, linear relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction but a positive linear relationship between age and job satisfaction. They felt that these results might lead to the U-shaped relationship if the two independent variables were not experimentally separated and that this situation might have accounted for the results of Herzberg, et al. (1957),

Herzberg was also involved in the development of the two-factor theory of motivation. Herzberg, Mausner, and Synderman (1959) discovered two factors that have been variously called the extrinsic-intrinsic factors or the dissatisfiers-satisfiers or the hygiene-motivators.

Herzberg, et al.'s (1959) study assumes that satisfaction is not a unidimensional concept and has resulted in two specific conclusions about job satisfaction:

First, there is a set of extrinsic job conditions which result in dissatisfaction among employees when they are not present. If these conditions are present, this does not necessarily motivate employees. These conditions are the dissatisfiers or hygiene factors since they are needed to maintain at least a level of minimal dissatisfaction. These factors include:

1. Salary
2. Job security
3. Status
4. Organizational procedures
5. Working conditions
6. Quality of interpersonal relations between subordinates

and superiors

7. Quality of supervision.

Second, a set of intrinsic job conditions exist which can result in good job satisfaction. If these conditions are not present, they do not prove highly dissatisfying. This set of factors is called the satisfiers or motivators. They include:

1. Achievement
2. Recognition
3. Responsibility
4. Advancement
5. The work itself
6. The possibility of growth.

Two unique aspects of this theory have been described by Lawlor (1973):

"First, two-factor theory says that satisfaction and dissatisfaction do not exist on a continuum running from satisfaction through neutral to dissatisfaction. Two independent continua exist, one running from satisfied to neutral, and another running from dissatisfied to neutral. Second, the theory stresses that different job facets influence feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction." (p.69)

Hence, in Herzberg's view, we can be both very satisfied and very dissatisfied at the same time. Better working conditions can only affect our dissatisfaction and not our satisfaction. Rogers (1975) has interpreted Herzberg's statements in this way:

"In other words, adequate salary, good working conditions, respected supervisors, and likeable coworkers will not produce a satisfied worker; they will only produce a worker who is not dissatisfied. However, their levels must be acceptable in order for the motivation factors to become operative - in other words, like medical hygiene practices, they cannot cure an illness, but they can aid in preventing it." (p.111)



Herzberg, et al.'s (1959) theory has received some criticism. First, Dunnette, Campbell, and Hakel (1967) felt that Herzberg's work oversimplifies the nature of job satisfaction. Dunnette, et al. (1967) stated that satisfaction or dissatisfaction can reside in the job context, the job content, or both jointly. Moreover, "certain dimensions - notably achievement, responsibility, and recognition - are more important for both satisfaction and dissatisfaction than certain other job dimensions - notably working conditions, company policies and practices, and security". (p.147).

Second, Lawler (1973) has criticised Herzberg's work, complaining that little attention has been paid to testing the motivational and performance aspects of the theory. In the original study of engineers and accountants, only self-reports of performance were used and, in most cases, the respondents were reporting on job activities that happened over a long period of time.

Other criticisms of the Herzberg theory (notably Schneider and Locke, 1971, and House and Wigdor, 1967) have concentrated on the limited sample. These authors felt that the technology, environment, and backgrounds of accountants and engineers are distinctly different from such groups as nurses, medical technologists, salespeople, computer programmers, and police officers. The two-factor theory also fails to explain why various job factors are important and Herzberg, et al. (1959) have offered no explanation as to why various extrinsic and intrinsic job factors should affect performance.

These criticisms do not invalidate the findings or usefulness of Herzberg's dichotomy. Hunt and Hill (1969) state that critical incident studies generally confirm the two-factor theory. Burke (1966),

who is quite critical of the Herzberg approach says:

"However, this does not mean that distinction between factors revolving around opportunities for self-actualization on the job and factors revolving around the social and technical environment of the job is not an important one. Other investigators have found this distinction useful in accounting for stereotyped perceptions of members of the same sex and the opposite sex ..... and for differential attitudes toward job retirement..." (p.317)

Wolf (1970) also concedes that the "Two-factor theory appears to be correct when it states that content elements (intrinsic facets) are more powerful determinants of (overall) job satisfaction than are context items (extrinsic facets)." (p.90)

Another useful model for investigation is the person-environment congruency model (Kasl, 1973) which has been shown to be an important factor in the study of occupational attitudes such as job satisfaction. The basic premise of this model is that workers' responses are a function of both person and environment as well as their interaction. The person-environment congruency model may consist of three parts: (1) the congruency between the person's abilities and job demands, (2) the congruency between the person's needs and the capacity of the organization to meet these needs, and (3) the congruency between the person's vocational interests and job activities.

Using the person-environment congruency model, one would predict a negative relationship with job satisfaction (for low congruency individuals ) for those variables that create a condition where person-environment incongruency is stressful and unpleasant. On the other hand, the high congruent individual is likely to develop experiences of mastery and competence that improves his job satisfaction. This results in a positive relationship with job satisfaction for those

variables that create a condition that is conducive to personal growth.

Three further theories that help provide a framework for analyses are Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy theory, Porter's (1961) modified need hierarchy theory, and Smith, Kendall, and Hulin's (1969) economic-frame-of-reference theory.

The major emphasis of Maslow's (1954) theory is that needs are arranged in a hierarchy. The lowest-level needs are the physiological and the highest level are the self-actualization needs. These are assumed to mean the following: (1) physiological - the need for food, drink, shelter, and relief from pain; (2) safety and security - the need for freedom from threat; (3) belongingness - the need for friendship, affiliation, interaction, and love; (4) esteem - the need for self-esteem, and esteem from others; (5) self-actualization - the need to fulfill oneself by maximizing the use of abilities, skills and potential.

Based on Maslow's opinions, a person attempts to satisfy the more basic needs (physiological) before directing behaviour toward satisfying upper-level needs (self-actualization). However, once a need has been satisfied, it ceases to motivate. For example, when a person decides that he/she is earning enough pay for contributing to the organization, money loses its power to motivate. The employee must receive satisfaction from higher order needs in order to increase job and life satisfaction.

A modified version of Maslow's need hierarchy was theorized by Porter (1961). He assumed that physiological needs were being adequately satisfied for managers and he substituted a higher-order need called autonomy. This was defined as the person's satisfaction with opportuni-

ties to make independent decisions, set goals, and work without close supervision; a need more often met in the higher teaching levels (i.e. community college and university).

The economic-frame-of-reference theory of Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) predicts that workers in communities with high costs and standards of living are less satisfied with income than workers in other communities. The workers' responses to various levels of environmental return are influenced as much by what they see other workers getting as by what they get.

The economic characteristics of the community (cost of living, standard of living, etc.) do not have a direct effect on the workers' satisfaction with income. Instead, it is assumed that the effects of the economic standards of the community are mediated through intervening psychological variables (frames of reference, adaptation levels), to produce their impact on satisfaction with income.

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory can be used to explain sex-income-job satisfaction results. Vroom bases his theory on three important concepts - expectancy, valence, and instrumentality.

The term expectancy refers to the perceived probability that a given level of effort will result in a given outcome. However, before deciding, the worker needs to know the value of the outcome. Vroom terms this value, valence. It reflects the strength of the individual's desire for the outcome. The degree to which he believes that high performance leads to a promotion is a subjective probability estimate which Vroom labels as instrumentality.

Therefore, the expectancy approach to income satisfaction suggests that an individual who expects to be paid very little will be satisfied with low pay, while a second individual expecting more pay will be dissatisfied, even though he may be receiving a higher income than the first individual. Thus, if female employees in an organization expect less pay than their male counterparts, they may in effect be more satisfied with this lower pay.

Hulin and Smith's (1964) covariance theory hypothesizes that observed sex differences are not due to the influence of sex per se; rather they may be attributed to "the entire constellation of variables which consistently covary with sex" (p.91). These covariant variables are such things as pay, promotion, policies, co-workers, immediate supervision, and the work itself. It is hypothesized by Hulin and Smith (1964) that if these variables were held constant, or if the effects were partialled out, the differences in job satisfaction would have disappeared.

Equity theory (Adams, 1963) states that employees make comparisons of their efforts and rewards with those of others in similar work situations. Equity exists when employees perceive that the ratios of their inputs to outcomes are equivalent to the ratios of other employees. The existence of perceived inequity creates tension and job dissatisfaction.

Landy (1978), in criticizing the equity theory says:

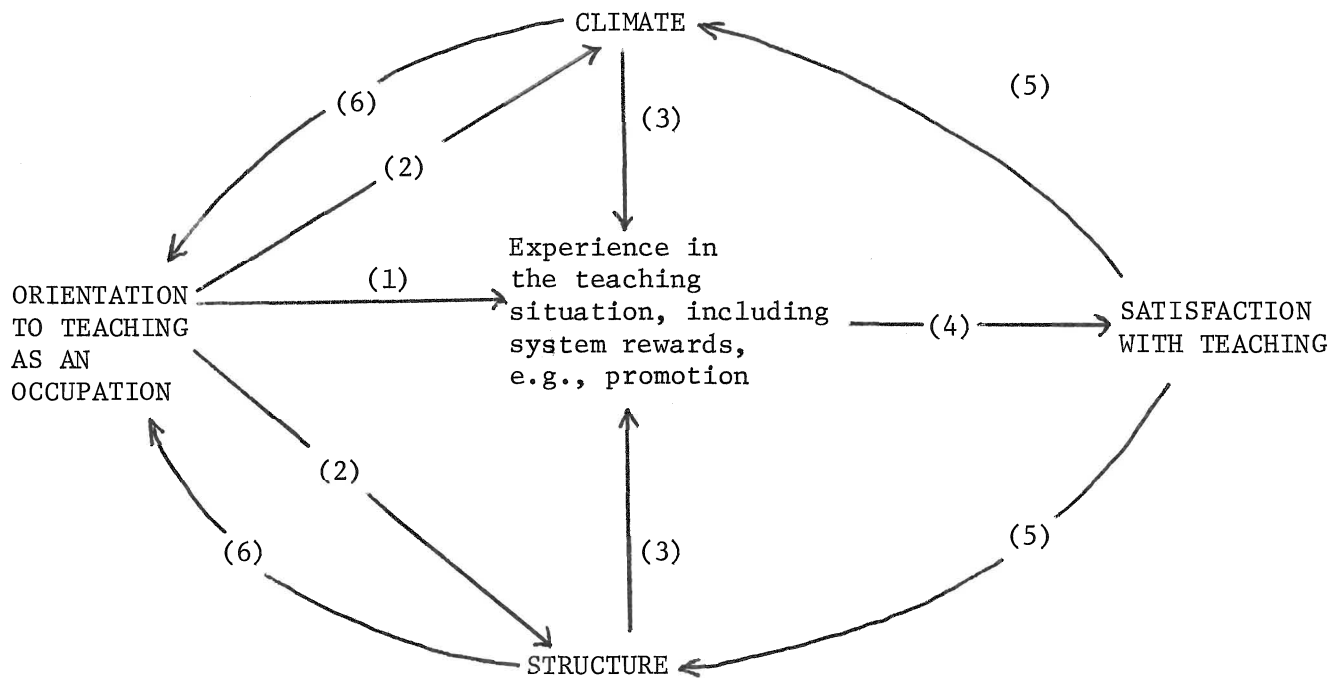
"In equity theory, dissatisfaction is an unpleasant aftereffect of discordant cognitions. As such, this dissatisfaction represents a source of tension to be reduced, and the organism expends energy in service of this reduction. The discordant cognitions are the result of individuals' comparisons of their own inputs and outcomes of significant others. In that sense, equity theory emphasizes the role of social

stimuli in general hedonic states. Nevertheless, the implicit assumption that individuals will engage in activities to reduce tension or discomfort is similar to the one proposed by Maslow. Research in equity theory has attempted to show that individuals with discordant cognitions report dissatisfactions; this dissatisfaction is thought to represent felt tension; it is proposed that individuals will engage in activities related to the reduction of this tension. The role of satisfaction in equity theory is less clear. The most reasonable interpretation of available theoretical discussion and empirical research is that satisfaction is the absence of dissatisfaction. There has been little attention devoted to the phenomenon of the positive end of the hedonic continuum by researchers using the equity paradigm." (p.534)

Grassie and Carss (1978), in an attempt to unravel the complexities associated with teaching satisfaction, developed the model represented by Figure II.

This model illustrates that teachers have different orientations to their occupation (1) and different perceptions of school organizational climate and structure (2). All of these are merged in their actual experience of teaching (3) and the net result is satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their work and colleagues (4). This feeds back on to perceptions of climate and structure (5) and orientations (6), and the process starts again.

The vast majority of research on job satisfaction has had its focus on either worker personality characteristics or on variables directly associated with work or the workplace. Scant attention has been paid to extra-workplace factors. This creates a disproportionate balance in the literature, and implies that the only important determinants of job satisfaction are work related variables. Though one might want to assume that worker satisfaction with his/her job would be positively correlated with the worker's personality and the conditions prevalent in the workplace, extra-workplace factors must be

FIGURE IIA MODEL FOR TEACHER SATISFACTION

considered to ensure a complete understanding.

Research findings from the educational, sociological, psychological, and managerial sectors will be considered in this section. First, the organizational variables (job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and happiness) will be compared with each other. Second, job satisfaction will be analyzed in relation to its demographic variables (job title, income, education, age, sex, marital status, job tenure, location of employment, and type of school). Finally, happiness will be analyzed in relation to its demographic variables (income, education, age, marital status, location of employment, and type of school).

The previous literature on job satisfaction, life satisfaction and happiness comparison is very sparse. In the 1972-73 University of Michigan study (Quinn and Shepard, 1974), a moderate, though significant, correlation was found between life satisfaction and job satisfaction. Similar modest results were obtained by Campbell, Converse and Rodgers (1976). Waldemar (1973), on the other hand, found that job and life satisfaction were significantly related to each other. A similar significant correlation was obtained by Trafton (1977); the correlation was so strong that he recommended that job satisfaction be considered a salient variable for counselors and life satisfaction be used as an organizational variable for further research.

The apparent lack of agreement between these reports might be affected by Kornhauser's (1965) 'spillover relationship' or DiMarco's (1975) 'group structure compatability'. Kornhauser, in a report whose findings were later supported by Iris and Barrett (1972), saw a 'spillover' rather than a 'compensatory' relationship between job



attitudes and attitudes toward life away from work. In other words, he found that those workers who experienced dissatisfaction in their jobs were those who were also unhappy with their lives. They had not compensated for job dissatisfaction by finding more enjoyment in other areas of life.

Further support, for the "spillover" argument advanced by Kornhauser (1965) and Iris and Barrett (1972), was produced by Orpen (1978). However, he found that job satisfaction had a greater effect on life satisfaction than was the case in the reversed situation:

"In aspects of life outside their jobs. Although the results point to the "long arm of the job," they do not offer definite reasons why job satisfaction should exert a stronger influence over nonwork satisfaction than nonwork satisfaction does over it." (p.532)

DiMarco (1975) found that there was some support for the hypothesis that satisfaction with work is related to life style - work group structure compatability. Homogeneous groups with regard to personality profiles tend to be more satisfied with their group members than heterogeneous groups.

Brayfield and Wells (1957) found that there was not significant relationships between job and life satisfaction for women but that there was a significant positive relationship for men. They offered two possible explanations for this discrepancy. First, the job could have been more important to the men because they were in higher job classifications which entail some independent judgement and carry higher salaries. Secondly, the job plays a more significant role in the lives of the men that it does for the women. These results,

however, must be considered today with caution because of the strong women's movement of the 1960's and 1970's which undertook to change the prevalent stereotype of their era that women can not do well in business and should not try.

A recent study by Kavanagh and Halpern (1977) replicated Brayfield and Well's (1957) findings and found a positive correlation between job and life satisfaction for both males and females regardless of job level. They also found that the average interscale correlation between life and job satisfaction decreases as one goes higher in job level (though the data are not statistically significant). Kavanagh and Halpern (1977) postulated that the reason for this unexpected result may be that as one goes up in an organization, the amount of pressure and stress on the individual increases. In order to successfully deal with this added stress, one must be able to cope or disengage from the work role. Thus, if this assumption is correct, it means that persons at the higher level jobs have simply done a good job of splitting their work from their life outside their work, in order to survive psychologically.

Weaver (1978) found that job satisfaction was correlated with overall happiness for employees in only two of twelve occupational categories (male professional-technical and female service employees). This indicates that work and the workplace are not central life interests. According to Weaver (1978), happiness is based on satisfaction in a number of different aspects of life; the employee whose happiness is significantly related to job satisfaction is also likely to experience satisfaction in other parts of life as well. He concludes that happiness seems to be a generalized phenomenon, according

to which employees are either generally satisfied or generally dissatisfied across a broad totality of life, with relatively few employees experiencing a significant satisfaction-happiness relationship in only one or a few aspects of life. If this interpretation is accurate, the happiness of most employees would rarely come entirely from a satisfying job, with little or no support from satisfaction in other domains of life.

The results obtained by Weaver (1978) support similar findings by Bradburn and Noll (1969). These authors reported a consistently strong association between work satisfaction and overall happiness. They found that income, promotions, and general chances for advancement are strongly associated with positive feelings of psychological well-being for those in higher status positions. Those in lower status positions, however, were unlikely to reap much benefit in terms of positive feelings about psychological well-being.

A life satisfaction-happiness comparison relationship has not been attempted in the literature since they are so intuitively similar, and respondents (especially untrained general populace respondents) have difficulty determining the subtle differences. Gurin, et al. (1960) and Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965) asked a single three-alternative question on happiness (as part of a larger interview schedule) and obtained very similar results to Robinson's (1969) three-alternative life satisfaction question. In fact, a number of authors use the words interchangeably in their discussions or use the words together to describe the same organizational variable.

The next section relates job satisfaction to the demographic variables.

Near, Rice and Hunt (1978), investigating work related variables, found that job satisfaction was highest among professionals, managers, and craftworkers and lowest among operatives and labourers. They further found that there was a general positive relationship between occupational prestige and job satisfaction. Highest levels of job satisfaction were found among occupations in the top two deciles; lowest levels of job satisfaction were found for occupations in the bottom two deciles.

Quinn and Shepard (1974), Locke (1976), and Seashore and Taber (1976) all had consistent results showing job satisfaction was highest among professionals, managers, and craftworkers and lowest among operatives and labourers. There was also a general positive relationship between occupational prestige and job satisfaction.

Teachers were found by Schackmuth (1979) to exhibit similar trends. As occupational prestige and status increase, "both material and psychic rewards also typically increase and therefore enhance one's sense of work satisfaction" (p.231).

However, very recent evidence has indicated that the relationship between job title and job satisfaction may not be linear. Ebeling, King and Rogers (1979), examining a national probability sample of working adults, found a significant curvilinear relationship. Even when adjusted by age, income, and occupational prestige, the curvilinear correlation remained. The second highest job title exhibited the greatest job satisfaction, significantly more so than the top job category.

Near, Rice and Hunt (1978) found a positive correlation between job tenure and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was highest among respondents who have held their jobs longest, and lowest among respondents who have held their jobs for the shortest period of time.

The relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction has generally been shown to have a positive correlation. Kasl (1973) indicated that the longer a person functions in a congruent environment, the greater the improvement in job satisfaction. Kasl (1973) postulated that this was due to the employee accumulating experiences of competence and mastery. Klein and Wiener (1977) obtained similar results, indicating that higher job satisfaction was associated with longer job tenure for high congruency individuals (note that no significant relationships were found for low congruency individuals).

Hunt and Saul (1975), working on a large sample (3,338 males and 579 females) of white collar workers, found a positive, linear relationship between overall job satisfaction and job tenure. The correlation between job satisfaction and job tenure was found to be greatest among workers under 25 years of age (especially females). These results conflict with Gibson and Klein (1970), who found a negative, linear relationship between company tenure and job satisfaction when using a sample of 2,067 blue collar workers. This negative result was explained by the disconfirming of original expectations by the employee. A similar negative relationship was reported by Borjas (1979) on a study of unionized blue collar workers: "In particular, union members expressed more dissatisfaction at higher

levels of tenure. Thus, surprisingly, it is the older workers in the firm who report .... low levels of job satisfaction". (p.38)

Studies of job satisfaction among teachers have indicated that job satisfaction tends to be higher for more experienced teachers (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1979; Start and Laundry, 1973). Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979) explain this relationship as follows:

"First, the biographical characteristics of teachers are not mutually independent; for example, teachers with greater teaching experience tend to be male, older and more likely to be heads of department. Secondly, any random sample of teachers is a sample of a survival population, in other words of those teachers who have remained in the profession, whilst others, for numerous reasons, of which it has been hypothesized here that the experience of stress is one factor, have left. Thirdly, older teachers differ in being not only older but of a different generation; if they have different attitudes, values and expectations regarding teaching, for example regarding the legitimacy of occasional absences, compared with younger teachers, this may reflect either the effects of age per se, or the effects of being of a different generation." (p.94)

The evidence of the relationship between sex and job satisfaction is very conflicting in the literature. Near, Rice and Hunt (1978), investigating extra-work variables, found that the respondents' sex was not significantly related to job satisfaction. Similar results were obtained by Quinn and Shepard (1974), whereas Bamundo's (1977) research conflicted with these findings, showing a stronger relationship between job and life satisfaction for men.

Skvorc (1975) found that women experience significantly lower job satisfaction and higher alienation than do men in an organization, though structural barriers such as the degree of organizational male orientation and male dominance account for this in part. The higher one's position, the greater the job satisfaction. Skvorc (1975) con-

cludes that a structure which maintains women in low status positions constrains them from realizing the full satisfaction that men in the organization find. Similar results were obtained by Brenner and Tomkiewicz (1979), and Hulin and Smith (1964). However, Bartol and Wortman (1975), using psychiatric hospital employees, found that females were significantly more satisfied than males with their work and co-workers. Finally, Sauser and York (1978), and Ebeling, King, and Rogers (1979) reported that sex is not a major predictor of overall job satisfaction even when the covariate variables were first ignored and then controlled.

Near, Rice and Hunt (1978) found that the respondents' age was significantly and positively related to job satisfaction. Similar results were obtained by Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979), Quinn and Shepard (1974), Gibson and Klein (1970), and Ebeling, King, and Rogers (1979). Hunt and Saul (1975) concurred with previous findings by showing a positive, linear relationship between overall job satisfaction and age. The correlation was found to be greatest among workers with less than 12 months tenure (especially for males).

Near, Rice and Hunt (1978) showed that job satisfaction was reliably related to the education of the respondent (though the effect was not strong). The lowest levels of job satisfaction are found for intermediate levels of education (high school, some college). Anderson (1977) found similar results, whereas Campbell, et al. (1976) reported a dip in job satisfaction only for that cohort which has completed some college but did not graduate from college.

Reports by Blood and Hulin (1967) and Wild and Kempner (1972) suggest that the location of employment may have a direct effect on job satisfaction or that it may be an important moderator of job

satisfaction. Near, Rice and Hunt (1978) also found that job satisfaction is directly related to stratum, however, conflicting results were reported by both Shepard (1970) and Schuler (1973).

Previous research has shown a generally positive relationship between income and job satisfaction (Vroom, 1964; Ebeling, King, and Rogers, 1979). Herzberg (1966) found that in an unfavourable job situation, satisfaction with pay comes to be a main determinant of overall job satisfaction. In a more favourable environment, satisfaction with pay is not related to general job satisfaction. Near, Rice and Hunt (1978) found that job satisfaction was not related to household income even though life satisfaction was significantly related to this factor. These results do not completely contradict the earlier findings since Near, Rice and Hunt (1978) used total family income rather than job pay as their demographic variable. However, in a five-nation study of work organizations by Tannenbaum, Kavcic, Rosner, Vianello, and Weiser (1974), the authors reported that of nine variables used to predict job satisfaction, salary and level of authority in the work organization were nonsignificant.

Near, Rice and Hunt (1978) reported that job satisfaction is significantly related to marital status. There was a much lower relationship among divorced and separated respondents, though, the job satisfaction of widowed respondents was the highest of any cohort. Bamundo (1977) found that married people had the strongest job satisfaction of any group.

No studies have been reported in the literature, linking the type of school to teacher job satisfaction. However, several studies have compared bureaucratic control and professional autonomy with job



satisfaction. Most reports (Grassic and Carss, 1978; Hall, 1969; Wilensky, 1964) stress a significant, negative relationship between bureaucratic rigidity and job satisfaction. However, Schackmuth (1979) found that there was "no correlation between the level of bureaucracy and work satisfaction." (p.231)

The next section relates life satisfaction to the demographic variables.

Near, Rice and Hunt (1978) showed a positive relationship between life satisfaction and income (household). Robinson (1969) found a general increase in life satisfaction as income increased, though the results were not significant beyond the 'under \$6,000' categories. Lifter (1973) also showed a positive relationship at low levels with life satisfaction, though Anderson (1977) found very little correlation between income and life satisfaction.

Bamundo (1977) found that married people exhibit the strongest life satisfaction and Anderson (1977), while coming to similar conclusions for married people, also found that those cohabiting on a long-term basis expressed more life satisfaction than single or divorced subjects. Robinson (1969) reported married people to be significantly more satisfied with life than unmarried people. Among unmarried people, those who were divorced or widowed were much less satisfied with life than single men and women. Similar results were reported by Near, Rice and Hunt (1978).

A non-significant relationship between sex and life satisfaction has been reported by several authors (Quinn and Shepard, 1974; Near, Rice, and Hunt, 1978), Robinson (1969) found only insignificant differ-

ences in life satisfaction reported between men and women, though divorced men responded as being the least satisfied with life. Bamundo's (1977) research conflicted somewhat with these findings, in that he reported a stronger relationship with life satisfaction for men.

Near, Rice and Hunt (1978) found that age was significantly related to life satisfaction. Lifter (1973) found a similar correlation with life satisfaction, especially at the lower levels. Robinson (1969) concluded that there was generally decreased life satisfaction for older people, though, the results were not completely linear. Interestingly, married people showed no decrease in life satisfaction with age.

Education has been shown by several authors (Near, Rice, and Hunt, 1978; Robinson, 1969) to be reliably related to life satisfaction though, the effect was not strong. Anderson (1977) found that the level of education was not related to the degree of professed life satisfaction.

Finally, Near, Rice, and Hunt (1978) have reported that life satisfaction is not significantly related to occupation, occupational prestige, or job tenure.

The next section relates happiness to the demographic variables.

Gurin, Veroff, and Feld (1960) located higher rates of unhappiness in metropolitan areas, and slightly lower than average unhappiness in the suburbs compared to residents of small cities and rural areas. The same pattern of results held true in the 1968 Survey Research Centre Data (Robinson, 1969) even when controlled for the income factor.

Increased happiness with increased income for all levels of

educational accomplishment, was found by Gurin, et al. (1960). This trend was supported by Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965), though, when compared with educational background, some interesting results were produced. The least unhappy group was the grade school educated group earning more than \$7,000 per annum. The least happy group was the grade school group earning less than \$3,000 - significantly less happy than the college educated individuals in the same economic range. Unusually, the college group earning more than \$7,000 was less happy than a similar group earning between \$3,000 - \$6,999. Hirabayashi and Saram (1978), using a low income village in the central highlands of Sri Lanka (Ceylon) as the sample, reported that the availability of money appears to constitute a happy life. The authors concluded: "It seems that money cannot buy happiness; it can, however, assist in the prevention of certain states of unhappiness" (p.269).

Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965) reported that married people are significantly happier than unmarried people. Among the unmarried, they found a markedly higher unhappiness among single men than single women, and the highest level of unhappiness among divorced and widowed respondents. Gurin, et al. (1960) found similar high levels of unhappiness among divorced and widowed respondents but insignificant variance of happiness level between men and women. Married people were, once again, significantly happier than unmarried people.

Investigations by Gurin, et al. (1960) found decreased happiness as the age of the groups increased. The least happy was the oldest group (55 years and over) while the least unhappy was the youngest group (21-34). These results were supported by Bradburn and Caplovitz

(1965) using somewhat different age groups. The least happy was the oldest group (70 years and over) while the least unhappy was the second youngest group (30-39). The youngest group (under 30 years) was slightly more unhappy than the second youngest group, though the result was not significant. Alker and Gawin (1978) stated that psychologically mature people are happier, a condition that does not necessarily come with age: "positive states of well-being have a more specific and qualitatively differentiated meaning for psychologically mature people" (p.319).

Gurin, et al. (1960) found a positive relationship between education and happiness. The least happy were those with grade school education while the happiest appeared to be those respondents who had at least some college education. These results were supported by Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965), though, the differences in levels of unhappiness were not as great.

The numerous research findings and theories, presented throughout this chapter, naturally led to the development of several substantial hypotheses. These hypotheses flowed directly from the information reported. In addition, the information opened the possibility of establishing a large number of experimental hypotheses for which little or no significant data were available within the reported literature.

### 3. Hypotheses

Based upon the aforementioned theoretical framework and reported findings, the study's major hypotheses were:

1. there will be a significant, positive relationship between professed life satisfaction of teachers and their general happiness;
2. there will be a positive relationship between life satisfaction and job satisfaction for teachers;
3. there will be a negative relationship between the age of the respondents and their purported life satisfaction;
4. there will be a significant relationship between life satisfaction and marital status, with married teachers indicating greater life satisfaction than either single or divorced;
5. there will be a negative relationship between the age of the respondents and their happiness;
6. there will be a positive relationship between the teachers' education and avowed happiness;
7. there will be a significant relationship between happiness and marital status, with married teachers indicating greater happiness than either single or divorced;
8. there will be a positive relationship existing between the income received and satisfaction with the job;
9. there will be a positive relationship between the age of the respondents and their job satisfaction;
10. there will be a positive relationship between education

and job satisfaction, with those individuals who have finished high school but not yet graduated from University exhibiting the highest job satisfaction;

11. there will be a significant relationship between job satisfaction and marital status, with married teachers indicating greater job satisfaction than either single or divorced, and widowed teachers exhibiting the highest job satisfaction;
12. there will be a significant relationship between job satisfaction and the location of employment of the respondents;
13. there will be a positive relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction.

Where reported information presented conflicting results, or where little or no data were available, several ancillary, research design hypotheses were developed. These research design hypotheses were:

1. there will be a positive relationship between professed job satisfaction and happiness;
2. there will be a significant relationship between income received and life satisfaction;
3. there will be a positive relationship between life satisfaction and the education of the respondent;
4. no significant relationship is expected between the individuals' sex and their professed life satisfaction;
5. there will be a positive relationship between the type of school taught in and life satisfaction for teachers;
6. there will be a positive relationship between work

- income and the happiness of the individual;
7. there will be a positive relationship between happiness and school location for teachers, with metropolitan areas registering slightly higher than average unhappiness, and slightly lower than average unhappiness in the suburbs, compared to residents of small cities and rural areas;
  8. there will be a positive relationship between the type of school taught in and the happiness of the individual;
  9. no significant relationship is expected between the individuals' sex and their professed job satisfaction;
  10. there will be a positive relationship between job satisfaction and type of school taught in;
  11. a significant relationship is expected between the job title (i.e. level of promotion) and the teacher's job satisfaction.

## CHAPTER II

### EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

#### 1. The Instruments

Elementary, high school, and community college teachers were asked to describe their life satisfaction, job satisfaction, and happiness using reliable scales of known validity. Overall job satisfaction was considered using Hoppock's (1935) Job Satisfaction Measure. The teachers were asked to describe their happiness using Gurin, et al.'s (1960) single question on happiness, and to describe their life satisfaction using Converse and Robinson's (1965) single question on life satisfaction.

Hoppock's (1935) Job Satisfaction Measure (further validated by McNichols, Stahl, and Manley (1978) using slightly reworded questions) consists of four questions related to various aspects of satisfaction with a person's job (see Table I). The job satisfaction score is obtained by summing responses to the four questions (giving each question equal weight), yielding a score between 4 and 28.

McNichols, et al. (1978) evaluated Hoppock's (1935) measure in terms of its distribution, construct validity, concurrent validity, convergent validity, and reliability. Using samples of 360 utility company managers, 17,110 civil employees, 10,996 general military personnel, and 628 strategic military personnel, they found high validity and reliability for the statements.

"Although developed over 40 years ago, Hoppock's job satisfaction measure appears to have significant utility in contemporary organizational research. The measure performs well when examined in terms of its distribution, construct, convergent, and concurrent validities and reliability. Furthermore, the measure



performs consistently when applied to a variety of sample populations including many different job opportunities, organizational levels, and demographic groupings" (p.741).

Wilson's (1967) extensive and comprehensive survey of the literature has established that avowed happiness can be determined reliably. Quoting earlier studies (with split-half reliability of .87 and test-retest reliabilities of .67 to .81), Wilson concluded that the general level of happiness can be measured with adequate reliability on a graphic scale.

The first major, extensive survey into happiness with a nationwide probability sample was that of Gurin, et al, (1960). The survey was actually conducted in the spring of 1957 with the authors asking a single three-alternative question (see Table II) on happiness, as part of a much larger interview schedule. The sample consisted of a national cross-section of 2,460 respondents chosen by probability methods to represent the entire adult (over 21 years of age) population of the United States. Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965) employed the Gurin, et al. (1960) happiness question in a study of more than 2,000 Illinois residents (a cross section of the population of four towns), finding highly comparable results.

A single question on satisfaction with life (see Table II) was included in the nationwide study of Americans' use of time by Converse and Robinson (1965). The sample consisted of 1,244 adults under 65 years of age where at least one member of the home had a regular, non-farm job. The question was repeated in the 1968 Survey Research Centre (Robinson, 1969) post-election study of political behaviour. This sample of 1,315 respondents provided full representation of the entire population and indicated a very constant relationship with the Converse and Robinson (1965) study of three years earlier.

TABLE I  
HOPPOCK'S JOB SATISFACTION QUESTIONS

1. Which one of the following shows how much of the time you feel satisfied with your job?
  - A. Never.
  - B. Seldom.
  - C. Occasionally.
  - D. About half the time.
  - E. A good deal of the time.
  - F. Most of the time.
  - G. All of the time.
2. Choose the one of the following statements which best tells how well you like your job?
  - A. I hate it.
  - B. I dislike it.
  - C. I don't like it.
  - D. I am indifferent to it.
  - E. I like it.
  - F. I am enthusiastic about it.
  - G. I love it.
3. Which one of the following best tells how you feel about changing your job?
  - A. I would quit this job at once if I could.
  - B. I would take almost any other job in which I could earn as much as I am earning now.
  - C. I would like to change both my job and my occupation.
  - D. I would like to exchange my present job for another one.
  - E. I am not eager to change my job, but I would do so if I could get a better job.
  - F. I cannot think of any jobs for which I would exchange.
  - G. I would not exchange my job for any other.
4. Which one of the following shows how you think you compare with other people?
  - A. No one dislikes his job more than I dislike mine.
  - B. I dislike my job much more than most people dislike theirs.
  - C. I dislike my job much more than most people dislike theirs.
  - D. I like my job about as well as most people like theirs.
  - E. I like my job better than most people like theirs.
  - F. I like my job much better than most people like theirs.
  - G. No one likes his job better than I like mine.

TABLE IIHAPPINESS AND LIFE SATISFACTIONSCALESHappiness

Taking all things together, how would you say things are these days? Would you say you're:

\_\_\_\_\_Very Happy; \_\_\_\_\_Pretty Happy; or

\_\_\_\_\_Not too Happy these Days

Life Satisfaction

In general, how satisfying do you find the way you're spending your life these days? Would you call it:

\_\_\_\_\_Completely Satisfying; \_\_\_\_\_Pretty Satisfying; or

\_\_\_\_\_Not very Satisfying

One of the most impressive features of the questions in Table II is the stable test-retest reliabilities they exhibit. In a small random sample of 90 residents in Jackson, Michigan, Converse and Robinson (in press) found a correlation (Kendall's tau) of .59 between reported satisfaction at one time and satisfaction reported in an interview four to six months earlier. The happiness question was added to this follow-up survey and it correlated .46 with the satisfaction question (and .43 with the satisfaction reply in the first interview). Bradburn and Caplovitz reported a test-retest table with the happiness question recorded over an eight month period which, when reduced to a value of Kendall's tau, equals .43; less than 2% of respondents chose the opposite extremes (i.e., "not too happy" at time 1 and "very happy" at time 2 or the reverse) across the time interval. Wilson (1960) reports two studies with test-retest correlations, one with a value .70 (a one-month interval) and the other a value of .67 (a two-year interval). (p.18)

## 2. The Sample

Questionnaire data were collected in 1979 from 1,937 teachers in the south-western Ontario area. The public school boards included Peel County, Niagara South, Simcoe, York County, Dufferin County, Lincoln County, Etobicoke, Halton County, and the cities of Hamilton and North York. Roman Catholic Separate School Boards included Hamilton-Wentworth, Welland, and Dufferin-Peel. Community college respondents from Sheridan College, Humber College and Mohawk College completed the specific location replies. A small 'others' group, including teachers of nursing and nursing school administrators, rounded out the sample.

The questionnaire consisted of 90 questions relating to a wide diversity of organizational variables. Respondents were asked to complete a page for 'personal and organizational data' listing nine demographic variables.

A total of 70.9% (1374) of the respondents were teachers, 12.6% (245) were department heads, 9.2% (178) were principals or vice-principals, 0.5% (9) were superintendents or directors, 0.7% (13) were specialist areas (e.g. co-ordinators or consultants of specific subjects), while 5.6% (109) represented 'other' categories. Only 0.4% (8) respondents did

not indicate their job title.

Table III illustrates a further breakdown of the respondents according to subject area.

Six percent (117) of the respondents were under 25 years of age, 45.3% (878) were between 26 and 35 years, 31.2% (604) were between 36 and 45 years, while 17.4% (338) were 46 years of age or older. Slightly more than half of the sample were male; 46.1% (893) were female.

Since the respondents were from teaching related disciplines a much higher educational training was expected relative to the general populace. This proved to be the case as more than 81% of the respondents indicated at least a Bachelor's degree. Only 18.9% (367) replied that they had not received a degree. Of the degree possessing respondents, 60.5% (1171) indicated only a Bachelor's degree, 18.3% (355) possessed at least one Master's degree, while 1.8% (34) had a PhD. Only 0.5% (10) people did not fill out this response.

Three quarters (1443) of the respondents were married, 19.5% (378) were single, 4.4% (86) were divorced, while only 0.7% (13) were widowed. Seventeen (0.9%) responses were not accounted for.

More than half (52.5%, 1016) of the teachers had over 10 years experience, 25.8% (499) had from 6 to 10 years on the job, 14.2% (276) had from 3 to 5 years experience, while only 7.5% (146) had been teaching for two years or less. Almost 46% (886) of the respondents possessed at least one year of non teaching experience while 54.3% (1051) had worked only within the profession. Those teachers who had taught at their present school for less than two years accounted for 28.3% (549) of the sample. Approximately half of the remainder (31.5%, 611) had been in the same location for 3 to 5 years, 23.5% (456) for 6 to 10 years, while 16.6% (321) had not changed schools for at least 10 years.

TABLE III  
Breakdown of Respondents by  
Subject Area

<u>Category Label</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Elem Primary	195	10.1
Elem Junior	239	12.3
Elem Senior	123	6.4
Special Ed	133	6.9
Sec Arts	118	6.1
Sec Pure Sciences	268	13.8
Sec Communic	179	9.2
Sec Soc Studies	143	7.4
ComColl Nursing	30	1.5
ComColl Others	35	1.8
Other Subj Areas	273	14.1
Blank Responses	<u>201</u>	<u>10.4</u>
TOTAL	<u>1937</u>	<u>100.0</u>

The income breakdown of respondents is given in Table IV.

Only 15.3% (296) respondents taught in a rural area, 16.7% (324) taught in a metropolitan area, 31.7% (614) taught in a small city and 35.7% (692) had a suburban teaching location. A total of 0.7% (11) responses were missing.

An additional 56 surveys (3.6% of the total) were returned during February, 1980, three months past the final deadline. It was possible to include these in the Presentation of Results, making N=1993.

Job Satisfaction, Life Satisfaction and Happiness are the three organizational variables considered in this report. Table V states the distribution of responses to these three variables. In the section for Overall Job Satisfaction, the category label, 4 through 28, represents the accumulated total of the four question responses (each question was not considered separately since validity had already been shown by Hoppock, 1935 and McNichols, et al., 1978)

### 3. Data Collection Procedures

Questionnaires were distributed by 41 teachers taking a Masters of Education program at Brock University, St. Catharines, Ontario. Each individual was asked to distribute 50-60 questionnaires to teachers, department heads, vice principals, principals, co-ordinators, consultants, superintendents and other personnel in the teaching profession. Distribution occurred within the graduate students' own place of employment, at some other school or board office, or a combination of the two options. The graduate students were instructed to make every effort to ensure maximum return, with a goal of 50 returns as an acceptable average.

TABLE IVBreakdown of Yearly Teaching Income

<u>Category Label</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Under \$15,000	167	8.6
\$15,000 - \$20,000	483	24.8
\$20,000 - \$25,000	505	26.1
Over \$25,000	762	39.4
Blank Responses	<u>20</u>	<u>1.1</u>
TOTAL	1937	100.0



Anonymity, as far as is possible using demographic variables, was promised to all respondents. They were asked not to put their name anywhere on the questionnaire and a trusted third party (Guidance counsellor, head secretary, etc.) was usually employed as the 'collector' of the completed questionnaires.

Some graduate students employed rather unique collecting techniques to ensure a reasonable return. Several employed high prestige personnel (such as principals or superintendents) to distribute the questionnaires. Others distributed the questionnaires during staff meetings with the promise of comparative feedback relating their staff to the overall sample - providing a basis for internal staff analysis. Still others handed out name slips along with the questionnaires. The name slips would be placed in a 'draw box' by the respondent when he/she returned the questionnaire and a name drawn at the end of the sample collection to determine the winner of a prize.

#### 4. Limitations of Study

The variety of collection procedures and the minimal use of 'mid range' choices on the questions must lead to the assumption that the responses indicate a professed characteristic of the individual, rather than an actual, valid response. It is this professed view that is assumed throughout the report.

Approximately 79% of the potential respondents returned their questionnaires. Though the sample on non respondents may have been slightly more negative, it is unlikely that they would have indicated sufficiently dissimilar results to affect the overall data.

TABLE V

Distribution of Responses for Life Satisfaction, Happiness, and Job Satisfaction

	<u>Category Label</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
<u>Life</u> <u>Satisfaction</u>	Completely Satisfying	352	18.2
	Pretty Satisfying	1420	73.3
	Not Very Satisfying	160	8.3
	Blank Responses	<u>5</u>	<u>0.2</u>
	TOTAL	<u>1937</u>	<u>100.0</u>

	<u>Category Label</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
<u>Happiness</u>	Very Happy	482	24.9
	Pretty Happy	1300	67.1
	Not Too Happy	146	7.5
	Blank Responses	<u>9</u>	<u>0.5</u>
	TOTAL	<u>1937</u>	<u>100.0</u>

	<u>Category Label</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>		<u>Category Label</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
<u>Job</u> <u>Satisfaction</u>	5	1	0		18	107	6
	6	0	0		19	165	9
	7	2	0		20	251	13
	8	1	0		21	261	14
	9	5	0		22	268	14
	10	5	0		23	281	15
	11	4	0		24	193	10
	12	19	1		25	108	6
	13	14	1		26	39	2
	14	23	1		27	17	1
	15	44	2		28	8	0
	16	47	2		Blank	8	0
	17	66	3				

### CHAPTER III

#### PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

The results are reported in four major sections, with each section further divided into subsections based on the hypotheses developed. First, the three organizational variables (life satisfaction, happiness, and job satisfaction) are compared with each other. The second section consists of a comparison of life satisfaction and its associated demographic variables (income, age, education, sex, type of school, and marital status). Thirdly, happiness is related to six demographic variables (income, age, education, marital status, type of school, and location). The fourth section compares job satisfaction with nine demographic variables (income, age, education, sex, marital status, type of school, location, job tenure, and job title).

Tables have been prepared for each variable comparison. Chi Square Analysis has been used. Data significance is assumed if  $\leq .05$ .

Each relationship is represented by a percentage figure, with N values listed in a separate column.

For job satisfaction, Hoppock's (1935) four questions were used for comparison with demographic variables. The responses were subdivided into three categories: Very Satisfied (for totals 23 through 28), Pretty Satisfied (for totals 20 through 22), and Not Very Satisfied (4 through 19). This split was determined by the total distribution of overall Job Satisfaction, with approximately 1/3 of absolute frequency considered for each category.

#### Comparison of Life Satisfaction and Happiness

It was predicted that life satisfaction and happiness would be significantly related since the terms are regularly used interchangeably or the words are used together to describe the same organizational variable.

This hypothesis was confirmed by the results illustrated in Table VI.

A total of 61% of the respondents who were very happy were also completely satisfied, while an even stronger relationship was evident (93%) among those respondents who were both pretty happy and pretty satisfied. Finally, 80% of the teachers showed a correlation between unhappiness and lack of satisfaction.

There were very few individuals (1%) who were very happy and yet not satisfied with life in general. A similar low percentage (1%) of respondents were unhappy and yet completely satisfied.

The results of this investigation show a very high correlation between life satisfaction and happiness.

#### Comparison of Life Satisfaction and Job Satisfaction

job satisfaction was predicted to be significantly related to life satisfaction, though it was not possible to postulate the degree of significance because of the conflicting data presented in the literature. The results of our investigation are summarized in Table VII.

The data presented in Table VII illustrate that job satisfaction and life satisfaction are significantly related.

Almost 30% of the individuals were very satisfied with their job and completely satisfied with their lives, while 80% were pretty satisfied with both. More than 22% of the respondents appeared unsatisfied with their work and their overall life satisfaction.

There appears to be a high overlap into the 'Pretty Satisfied' region. However, very few (2%) were very satisfied with their jobs and yet unsatisfied in their lives, and a similarly low percentage (8%) were completely satisfied with life in general while at the same time being unsatisfied with their job.

TABLE VI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LIFE SATISFACTION AND HAPPINESS

(N=1,983)

HAPPINESS	N	Life Satisfaction (%)		
		Completely Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Very Happy	493	61	38	1
Pretty Happy	1,338	4	93	3
Not too Happy	152	1	19	80

Chi Square = 1898.1 , 4 Degrees of Freedom, Significance = 0.000

TABLE VII  
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LIFE SATISFACTION AND JOB  
SATISFACTION

(N=1,982)

JOB SATISFACTION	N	Life Satisfaction (%)		
		Completely Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Very Satisfied	657	30	68	2
Pretty Satisfied	802	16	80	4
Not Very Satisfied	523	8	69	23

Chi Square = 254.6 , 4 Degrees of Freedom, Significance = 0.000

### Comparison of Happiness and Job Satisfaction

Due to the limited number of studies that have directly compared happiness and job satisfaction, it was not appropriate to postulate a direct relationship between these two organizational variables. However, because of the close association between happiness and life satisfaction, and since the job satisfaction-life satisfaction relationship is well reported, it was possible to research and hypothesize a direct relationship between happiness and job satisfaction.

Table VIII summarizes the results obtained from the comparison of these two variables. From this data, one is able to see a direct, significant relationship between happiness and job satisfaction. Almost 39% of the respondents were very satisfied with their job and very happy with life in general, while 20% were not very satisfied and unhappy. Just under 3/4 of the teachers who indicated that they were 'pretty happy' also indicated that they were 'pretty satisfied' with their job.

### Comparison of Life Satisfaction and Income

The conflicting data in the literature, especially beyond low levels of income, where a positive relationship is shown, led to a research hypothesis that postulated a relationship of significance between life satisfaction and income. In this study, job income is compared and not the overall family income. The information is summarized in Table IX.

The data shows, at least for teachers, that there is no significant relationship between work income and life satisfaction. In fact, very little variance occurred between the highest and lowest income respondents. No figure, for any income level, varied more than 5% from the mean values

of 20% for completely satisfied, 72% for pretty satisfied, and 8% for not very satisfied (values have been rounded).

#### Comparison of Life Satisfaction and Age

A strong, positive correlation was hypothesized between age and life satisfaction; however, this prediction was not supported by the data (see Table X).

Though there is a slight drop in Life Satisfaction as one gets older (at least in the extreme values of completely satisfied and not very satisfied), the results are not significant. In fact, each of the age groups had almost the same percentage (largest variance from mean only 2.2%) for the 'pretty satisfied' category. According to the above information, therefore, there is no positive correlation whatsoever between age and life satisfaction for Teachers.

#### Comparison of Life Satisfaction and Education

Conflicting research reports led to a research hypothesis that life satisfaction is weakly related to the education of the respondent. However, this is not supported by our data. Instead, education (at least in the higher levels possessed by teachers) is not related significantly to the degree of professed life satisfaction (see Table XI).

The highest level of complete life satisfaction is possessed by those respondents with no degree, while individuals with a Master's degree indicate the least complete satisfaction with life (even lower than the PhD's who in turn are more completely satisfied than Bachelor degree respondents). This trend suffers a reversal when the data on 'pretty satisfied' is considered. Here Master degree respondents are more satisfied than any other group, with the PhD group indicating the lowest relative satisfaction.



TABLE VIII  
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HAPPINESS AND JOB SATISFACTION  
(N=1,979)

JOB SATISFACTION	N	Happiness (%)		
		Very Happy	Pretty Happy	Not Too Happy
Very Satisfied	658	39	59	2
Pretty Satisfied	801	22	74	4
Not Very Satisfied	520	11	69	20

Chi Square =261.8 , 4 Degrees of Freedom, Significance =0.000

TABLE IXRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LIFE SATISFACTION AND INCOME

(N=1,965)

Income (\$)	N	Life Satisfaction (%)		
		Completely Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Under 15,000	168	23	68	9
15,000 - 20,000	494	20	74	6
20,000 - 25,000	515	16	75	9
Over 25,000	788	18	74	8

Chi Square = 7.913 ,      6 Degrees of Freedom,      Significance = 0.245

TABLE X  
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LIFE SATISFACTION  
AND AGE  
 (N=1,987)

Age (years)	N	Life Satisfaction (%)		
		Completely Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Under 25	116	19	74	7
26 - 35	909	20	72	8
36 - 45	619	18	75	7
Over 46	343	15	75	10

Chi Square = 7.543 , 6 Degrees of Freedom, Significance = 0.274

TABLE XIRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LIFE SATISFACTION AND EDUCATION

(N=1,976)

Education (Degree)	N	Life Satisfaction (%)		
		Completely Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
No Degree	370	23	70	7
Bachelor	1,208	18	73	9
Master	365	14	78	8
PhD	33	21	67	12

Chi Square = 10,583 , 6 Degrees of Freedom, Significance =0.102

#### Comparison of Life Satisfaction with the Sex of the Respondent

Most published reports indicate that sex is not significantly related to life satisfaction, though conflict (see Bamundo, 1977) with this conclusion has been presented. No work had previously been undertaken with teacher samples. This led to a research hypothesis that the teacher population would match the majority of general populace studies and show no significant relationship between life satisfaction and sex. The results are summarized in Table XII.

Clearly, there is no significant difference between the sexes and their professed life satisfaction. All values are almost identical (no value varies by more than 1%) for all levels of satisfaction.

#### Comparison of Life Satisfaction and Marital Status

It was predicted that life satisfaction and marital status would be significantly related, with married respondents indicating greater life satisfaction than either single or divorced. This hypothesis was confirmed by the results listed in Table XIII.

The results show that married people are significantly more satisfied with life than either single or divorced respondents. Interestingly, divorced teachers are slightly more satisfied with life than single respondents - a situation that is opposite to earlier reported studies. Widowed individuals' responses are not reported here since the number of questionnaire replies is too small (13) to be of significant value.

#### Comparison of Life Satisfaction and Type of School

A research hypothesis predicted that life satisfaction would be significantly related to the type of school. This relationship is illustrated in Table XIV.

TABLE XII  
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LIFE SATISFACTION  
AND SEX  
 (N=1,970)

Sex	N	Life Satisfaction (%)		
		Completely Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Male	1,061	18	74	8
Female	909	19	73	8

Chi Square = 0.151 , 2 Degrees of Freedom      Significance = 0.927

TABLE XIII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LIFE SATISFACTION ANDMARITAL STATUS

(N=1,956)

Marital Status	N	Life Satisfaction (%)		
		Completely Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Single	398	15	73	12
Married	1,468	20	73	7
Divorced	90	16	74	10

Chi Square = 16.119 , 4 Degrees of Freedom, Significance =0.003

TABLE XIV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LIFE SATISFACTION AND TYPE OF SCHOOL

(N=1,914)

Type of School	N	Life Satisfaction (%)		
		Completely Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Elementary	836	20	74	6
High School	971	18	73	9
Community College	107	13	73	14

Chi Square = 12.038 , 4 Degrees of Freedom, Significance = 0.017



Elementary teachers are significantly more satisfied with life than either high school or community college teachers. Instructors in community colleges are the least satisfied with life.

#### Comparison of Happiness and Work Income

From previous literature reports it was possible to research hypothesize that a positive correlation exists between happiness and income. Though other researchers had not used income levels as high as those used in this study on a fairly homogeneous group, extrapolation should have been possible. However, the study has found no significant relationship between income and happiness for our sample. A summary of the data is contained in Table XV.

The data are so close for all income levels that no value varies from the mean for the three ranges of happiness by more than 3%. There is very slightly greater unhappiness shown by the two higher income categories, though the data are not significant.

#### Comparison of Happiness and Age

It was predicted that the happiness of an individual is related to age. Decreased happiness would be expected as age increased. The relevant data from our experiment are summarized in Table XVI.

In this study, happiness was not found to be significantly related to the age of the individual. Though the oldest groups were the least happy and the most unhappy, the results were not significant. No value on any line varied more than 3% from the mean of the line.

#### Comparison of Happiness and Respondents Education

It was hypothesized that a positive relationship exists between a respondent's education and his happiness. The results do not confirm the hypothesis, though the group was a highly educated sample and did not contain the lower educational levels of the earlier studies. The results

TABLE XV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HAPPINESS AND INCOME

(N=1,962)

Income (\$)	N	HAPPINESS (%)		
		Very Happy	Pretty Happy	Not Too Happy
Under 15,000	168	29	65	6
15,000 - 20,000	492	25	68	7
20,000 - 25,000	514	22	69	9
Over 25,000	788	25	67	8

Chi Square = 4.951 , 6 Degrees of Freedom , Significance = 0.550

TABLE XVIRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HAPPINESS AND AGE

(N=1,984)

Age (years)	N	HAPPINESS (%)		
		Very Happy	Pretty Happy	Not Too Happy
Under 25	117	27	67	6
26 - 35	906	27	65	8
36 - 45	618	23	70	7
Over 46	343	22	69	9

Chi Square = 8.238 ,    6 Degrees of Freedom,    Significance = 0.221

of this study are contained in Table XVII.

From the results of an educated sample of teachers, it would appear that education and happiness are not significantly related. There is a slight trend in unhappiness as the education of the group increases (the PhD group has the highest number of unhappy individuals), though the trend is not significant. Interestingly, the PhD sample also has the largest group of very happy individuals (33%).

#### Comparison of Happiness and Marital Status

It was predicted that happiness and marital status were positively correlated and that married people are significantly happier than unmarried people. The data contained in Table XVIII confirms this conclusion.

Married respondents had significantly higher happiness and lower unhappiness than either divorced or single respondents. Interestingly, the divorced sample appeared much happier and less unhappy than did the single group.

#### Comparison of Happiness and Location

It has been hypothesized, using conclusions based mainly on American samples, that higher rates of unhappiness should be expected in metropolitan areas and slightly lower than average unhappiness in the suburbs compared to residents of small cities and rural areas. The data contained within Table XIX does not support these conclusions.

There appears to be no significant difference between location of employment and happiness. Slightly lower unhappiness levels were reported by residents of metropolitan and suburban areas and slightly lower happiness levels by metropolitan residents, however, none of the results are significant.

TABLE XVII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HAPPINESS AND EDUCATION

(N=1,972)

Education (Degree)	N	HAPPINESS (%)		
		Very Happy	Pretty Happy	Not Too Happy
No Degree	369	26	67	7
Bachelor	1,205	26	67	7
Master	365	21	70	9
PhD	33	33	55	12

Chi Square = 7.140 ,      6 Degrees of Freedom,      Significance = 0.308

TABLE XVIIIRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HAPPINESS AND MARITAL STATUS

(N=1,953)

Marital Status	N	HAPPINESS (%)		
		Very Happy	Pretty Happy	Not Too Happy
Single	396	19	70	11
Married	1,467	27	67	6
Divorced	90	23	68	9

Chi Square = 18.094 , 4 Degrees of Freedom, Significance = 0.001

TABLE XIX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HAPPINESS AND LOCATION OF EMPLOYMENT

(N=1,972)

Location of Employment	N	HAPPINESS (%)		
		Very Happy	Pretty Happy	Not Too Happy
Metropolitan	328	21	72	7
Suburban	730	26	67	7
Small City	620	25	67	8
Rural Area	294	26	66	8

Chi Square = 3.732 ,                      6 Degrees of Freedom ,                      Significance =0.713

### Comparison of Happiness and Type of School

It was research [unclear] hypothesized that happiness would be significantly related to the type of school. This relationship is illustrated by Table XX.

The happiest teachers were the elementary and high school teachers, both significantly happier than the community college instructors. Very little difference is observed in the level of happiness between elementary and high school teachers.

### Comparison of Job Satisfaction and Income

It was postulated that a generally positive relationship exists between income and job satisfaction. This relationship should be minimal or non-existent in a favourable job environment, though, in an unfavourable job situation, satisfaction with pay should be the main determinant of overall job satisfaction. Table XXI summarizes the findings of the sample of teachers.

Table XXI illustrates a very slight decline in job satisfaction as income level increases. The most satisfied (39%) and the least unsatisfied (23%) income level are those teachers earning between \$ 15,000 and \$20,000. Though income level seems to be related to job satisfaction, the significance of the relationship is not strong.

### Comparison of Job Satisfaction with Age

It was predicted that the respondents' age would be significantly and positively related to job satisfaction. Table XXII does not support this conclusion.

Though the oldest group was the most satisfied with their job and had the fewest members who were not very satisfied, the relationship was



TABLE XX

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HAPPINESS AND TYPE OF SCHOOL

(N=1,911)

Type of School	N	HAPPINESS (%)		
		Very Happy	Pretty Happy	Not Too Happy
Elementary	835	26	68	6
High School	970	26	66	8
Community College	106	14	75	11

Chi Square = 11.576 , 4 Degrees of Freedom, Significance = 0.021

TABLE XXIRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND INCOME

(N=1,964)

Income (\$)	N	JOB SATISFACTION (%)		
		Very Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Under 15,000	168	36	38	26
15,000 - 20,000	496	39	38	23
20,000 - 25,000	514	28	44	28
Over 25,000	786	32	41	27

Chi Square = 13.853 ,      6 Degrees of Freedom,      Significance = 0.031

TABLE XXIIRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND AGE

(N=1,986)

Age (years)	N	JOB SATISFACTION (%)		
		Very Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Under 25	117	37	35	28
26 - 35	909	33	41	26
36 - 45	618	30	44	26
Over 46	342	39	35	26

Chi Square = 10.739 ,      6 Degrees of Freedom,    Significance = 0.097

not significant. The youngest age group appeared more satisfied (37%) with their job than the next two older age groups while at the same time containing a greater percentage (28%) of unsatisfied members.

#### Comparison of Job Satisfaction and Education

It has been predicted that job satisfaction is reliably related to the education of the respondent, though the expected effect should not be strong. There is also an expectation that the highest job satisfaction level would be found among respondents who have finished high school but have not yet graduated from University (the 'No Degree' portion of our survey). Table XXIII summarizes the data from the respondents questioned.

The results obtained were exactly as expected. A slight, but significant, relationship exists between job satisfaction and education. Those individuals who have completed high school and yet not graduated from University (all of the 'No Degree' category, since this was the former minimum requirement of the Ministry of Education in order to teach public school in Ontario - the minimum has recently been upgraded to a Bachelor Degree) showed the highest level of satisfaction and the lowest level of dissatisfaction with their job.

#### Comparison of Job Satisfaction and Respondents' Sex

Conflicting evidence on the relationship of sex to job satisfaction led to a research hypothesis that sex would not play a significant role in the satisfaction of teachers with their job, due to the equal treatment afforded all employees within the profession. Table XXIV shows that this was not the case and that a positive correlation does exist, though the effect is not strong.

TABLE XXIIIRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND EDUCATION

(N=1,974)

Education (Degree)	N	JOB SATISFACTION (%)		
		Very Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
No Degree	371	39	41	20
Bachelor	1,205	33	39	28
Master	365	29	44	27
PhD	33	36	36	28

Chi Square = 14.707 , 6 Degrees of Freedom, Significance = 0.023

TABLE XXIV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND SEX

(N=1,969)

Sex	N	JOB SATISFACTION (%)		
		Very Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Male	1,059	30	43	27
Female	910	36	38	26

Chi Square = 9.057 , 2 Degrees of Freedom, Significance = 0.011

Women, apparently, are slightly more satisfied with their jobs than are men (the level of significance is not strong). A full 6% more females are very satisfied with teaching than their male counterparts.

#### Comparison of Job Satisfaction and Marital Status

It was predicted that job satisfaction would be positively correlated to marital status and that married people would display greater job satisfaction than either single or divorced respondents. Widowed individuals were expected to have the highest satisfaction with work of any group, however, the number of widowed respondents was too few to be of significant value in our sampling and the results listed in Table XXV do not include them.

job satisfaction, therefore, has a significant correlation with marital status, though the effect is not strong. Married people show the highest overall satisfaction with their job and the lowest dissatisfaction when compared to single and divorced respondents.

#### Comparison of Job Satisfaction and Job Location

It was predicted, using mainly American reports as a basis, that job satisfaction would be significantly related to the location of employment. This was found not to be the case as Table XXVI illustrates.

It appears that job location is not a significant factor in overall job satisfaction for teachers in the Southern Ontario area. In fact, no level of satisfaction varies more than 3% from the mean for any location.

#### Comparison of Job Satisfaction and Type of School

It was hypothesized that job satisfaction would be significantly related to the type of school. Table XXVII summarizes the data.

TABLE XXV

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND MARITAL STATUS

(N=1,955)

Marital Status	N	JOB SATISFACTION (%)		
		Very Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Single	398	32	36	32
Married	1,467	34	42	24
Divorced	90	32	40	28

Chi Square = 9.569 , 4 Degrees of Freedom, Significance = 0.048



TABLE XXVI

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB LOCATION

(N=1,974)

Job Location	N	JOB SATISFACTION (%)		
		Very Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Metropolitan	328	32	41	27
Suburban	731	35	38	27
Small City	619	31	43	26
Rural Area	296	34	40	26

Chi Square = 4.196 , 6 Degrees of Freedom, Significance = 0.650

TABLE XXVII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND TYPE OF SCHOOL

(N=1,913)

Type of School	N	JOB SATISFACTION (%)		
		Very Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Elementary	835	37	40	23
High School	971	32	40	28
Community College	107	15	39	46

Chi Square = 34.640 ,      4 Degrees of Freedom ,      Significance = 0.000

Community college instructors were significantly less satisfied with their jobs than either elementary or high school teachers. The most job satisfied group was the elementary teachers.

#### Comparison of Job Satisfaction and Job Title

A significant relationship between job satisfaction and the level of promotion (i.e. job title) was predicted from the literature. The higher levels within the hierarchy were expected to exhibit greater job satisfaction than the lower levels. This relationship was actually found to occur, as illustrated by the data of Table XXVIII.

Department heads are slightly more satisfied with their job than ordinary teachers, while principals are significantly more satisfied with their work than either teachers or department heads.

#### Comparison of Job Satisfaction and Job Tenure

A positive relationship was predicted between job satisfaction and job tenure. This relationship did not occur, as illustrated by the data of Table XXIX.

The relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction, for teachers, was found to have no significance. However, if the 'very satisfied' column is examined, a U-shaped relationship (reported by Herzberg, et al., 1957) is observed. Initial, high satisfaction drops off over time, climbing again as the experience of the teacher increases.

TABLE XXVIII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB TITLE

(N=1,838)

Job Title	N	Job Satisfaction (%)		
		Very Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Teacher	1,402	34	39	27
Department Head	259	32	44	24
Principal	177	39	46	15

Chi-Square = 14.665 , 4 Degrees of Freedom, Significance=0.005

TABLE XXIXRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND JOB TENURE

(N=1,986)

Job Tenure (years)	N	Job Satisfaction (%)		
		Very Satisfied	Pretty Satisfied	Not Very Satisfied
Less than 2	150	37	35	28
3 to 5	284	36	37	27
6 to 10	519	29	43	28
Over 10	1,033	34	41	25

Chi-Square = 8.359 , 6 Degrees of Freedom, Significance = 0.213

## CHAPTER VI

### DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The discussion of the results of this investigation will be divided into the four sections. First, the three organizational variables (life satisfaction, job satisfaction, and happiness) will be compared. The second section will analyze the findings of life satisfaction and its associated demographic variables (income, age, education, sex, type of school, and marital status). Third, happiness will be considered in relation to its five demographic variables (income, age, education, marital status, type of school, and location). Finally, the fourth section will analyze the findings of job satisfaction and its associated demographic variables (income, age, education, sex, marital status, job tenure, type of school, and job title).

In considering the relationship between the three organizational variables, a significant correlation was obtained in each case. In fact, Chi-Square significance was 0.0000 for all the possible comparisons.

Happiness and life satisfaction were expected to exhibit the strong relationship with each other that was actually obtained. Numerous authors use these words interchangeably in their discussions, or use the words together to describe the same organizational variable. The three-alternative question for happiness used in this study was identical to the one used by Gurin, et al. (1960) and Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965), both sets of authors showing similar positive correlation to Robinson's (1969) three-alternative life satisfaction question (also used for the life satisfaction analysis in this study).

The strong, significant correlation obtained between life satisfaction and job satisfaction was predicted from theory and the literature,

however, the strength of the relationship was somewhat of a surprise when considered with the conflicting results presented by other authors. Though Waldemar (1973) and Trafton (1977) reported significant correlation between these two variables, Quinn and Shepard (1974), and Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers (1976) found only a moderately significant correlation.

In examination of Near, Rice, and Hunt's (1978) multiple component model of life satisfaction and associated first and second order determinants, a moderate relationship would be expected with job satisfaction. This model proposes that job satisfaction represents only a small portion of the total life satisfaction concept. However, Near, Rice, and Hunt (1978) obtained their interview data from a heterogeneous, stratified sampling of Buffalo area residents and not from a relatively homogeneous group such as teachers might be expected to represent. Therefore, DiMarco's (1975) group structure compatibility prediction should better fit this particular sample. Since teachers exhibit a fairly homogeneous life style - work group structure compatibility, DiMarco's (1975) hypothesis would predict a significant life satisfaction - job satisfaction relationship. Also, Kornhauser's (1965) 'spillover' relationship theory aids with interpretation of the results. Kornhauser (1965) found a spillover rather than a compensatory relationship between job attitudes and attitudes toward life away from work. Thus, people who are satisfied with their lives would be expected, similarly, to be satisfied with their jobs (and vice-versa). Even though job satisfaction represents only a small fraction of overall life satisfaction (as theorized by Near, Rice, and Hunt, 1978), the spillover effect of the two variables would show a significant correlation.

The strongly significant relationship between happiness and job satisfaction was research hypothesized to exist because of the close correlation between happiness and life satisfaction. Few studies exist linking happiness and job satisfaction, though Weaver (1978) found a positive correlation in only two of twelve occupational categories. However, it is interesting to note, that examination of Weaver's (1978) categories (including such occupations as farmers, craftsmen, operatives, clerical), the two categories showing a positive correlation (professional-technical and service) are the most closely related to the teaching profession of all the samples studied. Weaver (1978) concludes that happiness is a generalized phenomenon with "relatively few employess experiencing a significant satisfaction-happiness relationship in only one or two or a few aspects of life" (p.839). This conclusion is strikingly similar to Near, Rice, and Hunt's (1978) multiple component model of life satisfaction and it is reasonable to postulate that the same arguments for happiness may be used as were advanced for life satisfaction.

In considering life satisfaction relative to the demographic variables, each demographic variable is analyzed separately.

The research hypothesis that postulated a low significant relationship between income and life satisfaction was found not to occur. In fact, there was no correlation at all between these two variables. These results support Anderson's (1977) findings but are somewhat contradictory with Near, Rice, and Hunt (1978). However, Near, Rice, and Hunt (1978) compared household income rather than job income, with life satisfaction, and it is reasonable to assume that in 1979 (when our survey was completed) more than one income is used by the majority of households



to calculate total household income.

Robinson (1969) found a general increase in life satisfaction as income increased, though the results were not significant beyond the very low (under \$6,000) categories. Even when inflation is considered, these results are not reasonable since our lowest starting range was the 'under \$15,000' category. Lifter (1973) also showed a positive relationship between income and life satisfaction, though once again, only at low levels of income.

Teaching is a somewhat unique profession in that income is based solely on educational accomplishment and length of service. Also, teachers in adjacent Boards usually receive similar amounts of remuneration. Consequently, each category of income should have similar relative expectation levels. Thus, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory and Adam's (1963) equity theory would be of value in consideration of the results.

In retrospect, since the 'over \$25,000' category has more than 40% of the total sample, a further breakdown of income levels might have been considered. The 'over \$25,000' could have been further divided into '\$25,000 - \$30,000', '\$30,000 - \$35,000'. and 'over \$35,000'. However, in light of the results obtained previously, it is unlikely that a significant relationship would have been established.

The significant relationship between age and life satisfaction, reported by numerous researchers (e.g. Near, Rice, and Hunt, 1978; Lifter, 1973; Robinson, 1969) and hypothesized for this study, was found not to exist. According to the results of our survey, age is not significantly related to life satisfaction.

Several possible explanations could account for this discrepancy: Lack of promotional pressure, social motivation for entering the profession, satisfaction of worthwhile accomplishment, relatively high financial return, educational achievement of the respondents, ample available time for pursuing other life interests, and homogeneity of the sample.

Teachers seem to have very little pressure, either internally or externally motivated, to achieve success on the promotional ladder. A majority of teachers do not appear to expect advancement opportunities in times of stabilizing or declining enrolment and are generally satisfied with their classroom interaction. Therefore, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory and Adams' (1963) equity theory, predict general satisfaction based on the respondents' realistic expectations and perceived comparisons. With public awareness of future declining enrolment, less home and social group pressure (either imagined or actual) exists for promotional achievement and life satisfaction is not as significantly affected as might be expected for industrial or managerial employees.

Teaching, like nursing and social work, appears to attract idealistic and socially motivated individuals. These people gain meaningful satisfaction with their perceived assistance to society, and a sense of accomplishment, worth and contribution that carries over from their jobs to their life in general. Greater opportunity exists to satisfy Maslow's (1954) highest level of needs hierarchy - self-actualization. Self-actualization is the need to fulfill oneself by maximizing the use of abilities, skills and potential; and achievement more possible in teaching than in many other occupations. This satisfaction of higher order needs

tends to significantly affect life satisfaction in general.

The reasonably high financial remuneration that teaching provides (predominantly from 1972 to the present), allows members of the profession to gain a standard of living that is reasonably comparable to other members of society with similar educational achievement. Therefore, Smith, Kendall, and Hulin's (1969) economic-frame-of-reference theory would assist in explaining the general life satisfaction achieved, since the respondents' salaries would not be significantly different from what they perceive other workers as obtaining. The decline in life satisfaction as age increased (as illustrated by Robinson, 1969), could be compensated by the increase in teacher remuneration received for each year of experience. This experience variable is reasonably comparable with age in teaching, since the profession tends to remain relatively static, with few transfers to or from other occupational endeavours.

Teachers possess high educational achievement (when compared with society in general) and are potentially more capable of realistically examining life expectations, thus lending further credence to Vrooms's (1964) expectancy theory. This higher academic base also allows teachers to pursue a more varied range of extra-workplace activities than the general populace.

One of the most probable reasons for a lack of age and life satisfaction significance revolves around the ample available time for involvement in other life interests. The short teaching day, free weekends, and long holidays provide teachers of all ages with leisure opportunities not possible to many respondents of other surveys. Joined with the high income level, strong educational background, social motivation,

and lack of promotional pressure, this time availability provides teachers with the opportunity to maximize individual life interests. Except for the new teacher of one to two years experience (very low representation in our sample), this 'free' time is available to all ages within the profession in fairly equal measure.

Finally, the homogeneous life style-work group structure compatability described earlier might assist in explaining the variance of our data from the predicted results based on reported heterogeneous samples of area residents.

The research hypothesis that postulated a low significance relationship between education and life satisfaction was found not to exist in our study. Both Near, Rice, and Hunt (1978) and Robinson (1969) found a reliable, though weak, relationship between education and life satisfaction, while Anderson (1977) reported that the level of education was not related to the degree of professed life satisfaction for her study.

The explanation for this discrepancy appears to lie in two areas: the level of achieved education of the respondents and the homogeneity of the sample. Robinson (1969) used a sample of 1,315, representing the entire population, and separated the education categories into 'less than high school grad', 'high school grad', and 'some college or more'. Near, Rice, and Hunt (1978) used a similar education separation while obtaining results from a heterogeneous sample of Buffalo area residents. However, Anderson (1977) used a highly educated (minimum of a Bachelor degree) sample of 228 graduate students and teachers.

Therefore, it appears that life satisfaction and education are weakly correlated when low levels of education are considered within a heterogeneous sample. When all respondents have attained a relatively high degree of educational achievement and the sample is homogeneous, education is not significantly related to overall life satisfaction.

One might possibly extrapolate these findings and predict that other professions possessing high educational attainment and strong homogeneity (such as engineers, bankers, social workers, nurses, etc.), would show a similar lack of significance between life satisfaction and education of the respondent.

As predicted, the sex of the individual had no differential impact on life satisfaction. In fact, the results for both males and females were so close (significance 0.9274) that they could almost be considered as identical.

Life satisfaction and marital status were significantly related in our study, a result that matches prediction. Married people were more satisfied with life than either divorced or single respondents. However, divorced teachers were slightly more satisfied than their single cohorts, a result that is contrary to Robinson (1969), and Near, Rice, and Hunt (1978). As Robison (1969) concluded; "if it is 'better to have loved and lost', it seems better to have done so before entering the state of matrimony" (p.19).

This discrepancy with previous reports for single and divorced respondents could be explained by considering the following: security of income, modified expectation, person-environment congruency, and reduction of social stigma.

Making a reasonably logical assumption that divorced individuals tend, in the majority, to be older (and more job experienced) than their single counterparts, then their level of income security will be higher than single teachers in a time of declining enrolment. Teachers are declared surplus in Ontario on a basis of seniority, threatening the younger, less experienced teacher more directly than his older cohort. Assets would have accumulated during the marriage to further strengthen the financial base of the divorced individual. A high average educational level (far higher than Robinson, 1969, or Near, Rice, and Hunt, 1978) would have provided better job prospect security than was available to the divorced respondents of the previous studies. Finally, a lower alimony allotment by Canadian courts (when compared with their American counterparts) creates more personal independence than would be prevalent among respondents south of the border.

Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell's (1957) modified expectation theory shed some light on the life satisfactions of the divorced and single teachers. Initially high life expectations of the single respondent have not been fulfilled, resulting in a drop of overall satisfaction with life. However, the more experienced and mature, divorced individual, had adjusted his life expectations so that they are more realistic and easier to satisfy.

The person-environment congruency model helps to rationalize the higher life satisfaction of divorced respondents. The high congruency between the person's needs and the ability of the organization to meet these needs is representative of the teaching profession. Strong consistency of educational achievement, social level, and personality characteristics enable the divorced individual to develop closer bonds

of support, than the single teacher who has less commonality with the majority.

Finally, divorce has become more prevalent within our society and the social stigma previously attached to it has reduced significantly. This places less overt pressure on the divorced than was the case in past years.

The widowed sample was too small (13) to be of significant value if reported. However, one would predict a lowered life satisfaction for widowed respondents, though possibility higher than single persons for reasons expanded on for the divorced respondents.

Life satisfaction and type of school were significantly related in our study, a result that matches the research prediction. Elementary teachers were the most satisfied with life, while community college teachers experienced the least life satisfaction. High school teachers fit between these two extremes.

The elementary school system appears more structured and regimented than the high school system, which in turn has greater structure and regimentation than community colleges. Individuals would tend to enter into the level of teaching that best suits their personal orientation. The elementary system could attract those teachers who are most satisfied with a structured environment, while the high schools and community colleges could attract the more independent, self motivated individual.

Those people, who accept structure willingly, would be expected to be the most satisfied with life in general (at least as it exists within Canada). Rules, regulations, and bureaucracy, control our basic

lives. Independence is viewed with disdain, as society strives to establish guidelines of acceptable conduct that are expected to be followed. Individuals who vary from this mode are viewed with suspicion and receive less positive feedback than their colleagues who conform.

Since the elementary system could attract the conformist more than the autonomous teacher, satisfaction with life would be more prevalent here than within the other two levels of the teaching hierarchy. The individualist could orient more to the community college, receiving less acceptance of his independence away from the academic atmosphere, resulting in a lower level of life satisfaction than his more regimented colleagues.

In considering happiness relative to the demographic variables, each demographic variable is analyzed separately. However, because of the extremely similar nature of life satisfaction and happiness, the significance values for happiness will be found to be very similar to life satisfaction and the consequent explanations for the results will also be highly similar. To this end, reference will be made to the life satisfaction discussion.

The research hypothesis that postulated a significant relationship between income and happiness was found not to occur. In fact, there was no correlation at all between these two variables. Gurin, et al. (1960) found increased happiness with increased income for all levels of educational accomplishment though the results are not totally comparable with our study. Gurin, et al. (1960) used a maximum salary level of 'over \$5,000', while our minimum value was 'under \$15,000'. Similarly, Bradburn and



Caplovitz's (1965) study showed a similar trend to Gurin, et al. (1960), though, their results are also not fully comparable since they too used a low maximum salary range ('\$7,000 and over'). Even taking inflation into account, the ranges of salary are less than equivalent.

Once again, as with life satisfaction, Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory and Adams' (1963) equity theory might be used as an aid to explanation. All levels of income would have similar relative expectation levels since teachers are paid solely on educational accomplishment and length of service. Also, teachers in adjacent Boards usually receive similar amounts of remuneration. Thus, unlike the general population who competitively seek income improvement, and are unhappy with unsatisfied expectations, teachers have their salaries controlled completely by 'outside' forces and have not developed unrealistic expectations.

The significant relationship between age and happiness reported by Gurin, et al. (1960) and Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965) and hypothesized for this study, was found not to exist. According to these previous authors, decreased happiness should occur as the age of the group increased. Though a slight trend to this effect appeared in our sample, the results were not significant.

Several possible explanations could account for this discrepancy and they were considered under the discussion of life satisfaction and age. For reasons of clarity, they will be listed here again; lack of promotional pressure, social motivation for entering the profession, satisfaction of worthwhile accomplishment, relatively high financial return, educational achievement of the respondents, ample available time

for pursuing other life interests, and homogeneity of the sample.

The hypothesis that postulated a significant relationship between education and happiness was found not to exist in our study. Both Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965) and Gurin, et al. (1960) found a reliable relationship between these two variables.

As with life satisfaction, the explanation for this discrepancy appears to lie in two areas: the level of achieved education of the respondents and the homogeneity of the sample. Gurin, et al. (1960) used a national cross section of 2,460 respondents chosen by probability methods to represent the entire adult population of the United States and separated the education categories into 'grade school', 'high school', 'some college or more'. Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965) used an identical education separation while obtaining results from more than 2,000 Illinois residents.

Therefore, it appears that happiness and education are correlated when low levels of education are considered within a heterogeneous sample. When all respondents have attained a relatively high degree of educational achievement, and the sample is homogeneous, education is not significantly related to overall happiness. As with life satisfaction, extrapolation of these findings may be possible to other professions possessing high educational attainment and strong homogeneity.

Happiness and marital status were significantly related in our study, a result that matches prediction. Married people were happier than either divorced or single respondents. However, divorced teachers were slightly happier than their single cohorts, a result that is contrary to Gurin, et al. (1960) and Bradburn and Caplovitz (1965).

This discrepancy with previous reports for single and divorced respondents could be explained by considering the four effects analyzed under life satisfaction: security of income, modified expectations, person-environment congruency, and reduction of social stigma.

Once again, the widowed sample was too small (13) to be of significant value if reported. However, one would predict a lower happiness for widowed respondents, though possibly higher than single persons, for reasons expanded on for the divorced respondents.

American studies of heterogeneous samples (see Gurin, et al., (1960) and Robinson, 1969) have shown a correlation between happiness and location. However, our research hypothesis predicting higher rates of unhappiness in metropolitan areas, and slightly lower than average unhappiness in the suburbs, compared to residents of small cities and rural areas, was found not to exist. There was no significant relationship between location of employment and happiness.

The previous studies linked happiness with location of home, not location of employment. It is unrealistic to assume that teachers work only within the areas in which they live, therefore, making comparisons with previous studies is subject to caution.

Secondly, the metropolitan and suburban areas of large American cities differ markedly from their Canadian counterparts. The American inner cities contain a high proportion of low income, coloured, and ethnic inhabitants often living in slum or slum-like conditions. Their suburbs, on the other hand, are usually white dominated and economically more secure. Canada, especially in the Metropolitan Toronto area where this study was completed, has a more even mix of income levels and ethnic

backgrounds within the inner city and surrounding suburbs. Low rental housing, development of the inner core, the 'mosaic' concept of racial identity preservation, and the 'metropolitan' form of government have all contributed to the elimination of classical slum conditions prevalent south of the border. Wealthy and poorer areas exist both in the suburbs and the inner city. To this end, one could expect a different happiness-location result than obtained for American respondents.

Happiness and type of school were significantly related in our study, a result that matches the research prediction. Elementary teachers were the happiest, while community college instructors experienced the lowest happiness. High school teachers fit between these two extremes.

As with life satisfaction, happiness could reasonably be expected to relate to type of school since the various levels of the education hierarchy attract teachers with differing personal views. The elementary system could attract those teachers who are happiest within a structured environment, while the high schools and community colleges could attract the more independent, self motivated individuals. Lack of general acceptance of the autonomous individual within society might explain the lower level of happiness, as one considers the less regimented schools.

In considering job satisfaction relative to the demographic variables, each demographic variable is analyzed separately.

The hypothesis that income is significantly related to job satisfaction was substantiated by our study, though the effect was not strong. This result is consistent with previous studies (Vroom,

1964; Herzberg, 1966). Herzberg (1966) found that in an unfavourable job situation, satisfaction with pay comes to be a main determinant of overall job satisfaction. In a more favourable environment, satisfaction with pay is not related to general job satisfaction.

When job satisfaction was compared with age, the positive correlation reported in recent literature and hypothesized in this investigation, was not upheld by the results. Although the oldest group of teachers was the most satisfied with their job and had the fewest members who were not very satisfied, the relationship was not significant.

Gibson and Klein (1970), Kyriacou and Sutcliffe (1979), Quinn and Shepard (1974), Ebeling, King, and Rogers (1979), and Near, Rice, and Hunt (1978) all showed that age was significantly and positively related to job satisfaction. Quinn and Shepard (1974) found that the relationship to be linear.

Examination of the 'very satisfied' category of Table 26 shows a U-shaped relationship existing between age and job satisfaction. The youngest teachers (under 25 years) show a high job satisfaction (37%), with a significant drop (to 33%) for the next highest age group (26-35 years). The third age group (36-45 years) continues this trend (to 30%), while the oldest group (over 46 years) has the highest overall job satisfaction (39%).

A similar U-shaped relationship between job satisfaction and the age of the employee was discovered by Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell (1957). Though this conclusion has been rejected by more recent authors, it appears to be substantiated by our study.

Herzberg, et al. (1957) developed the modified expectation theory to explain their results. They explained that when individuals started their first job, they had initial high work expectations that were not fulfilled, resulting in a drop in overall satisfaction with the job. However, as the employee becomes more experienced and mature, he adjusts his ambitions so that they become more realistic. Since these new goals are more attainable than the former ones, job satisfaction tends to increase.

Job satisfaction was predicted to be significantly related to the education of the respondent, though the effect was not expected to be strong. It was further hypothesized that the highest job satisfaction level would be found among respondents who have finished high school but have not yet graduated from University (see Near, Rice, and Hunt, 1978).

The results obtained were exactly as expected. A slight, but significant, relationship exists between education and job satisfaction. Those individuals who have completed high school and yet not graduated from University showed the highest level of satisfaction and the lowest level of dissatisfaction with their job.

Our research hypothesis (based on Near, Rice, and Hunt, 1978, Quinn and Shepard, 1974, and Sauser and York, 1978) that sex would not play a significant role in teacher job satisfaction was not confirmed. Females are significantly more satisfied with their jobs than is the case for their male counterparts, though the effect is not strong.

Teaching is one of the few jobs in which females and males are treated equally. Both sexes receive the same monetary return, similar ancillary benefits, and comparable opportunities for advancement.

Applying Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory, one can obtain a possible explanation for the greater female satisfaction reported, even though equality between the sexes appears to be the norm within the school system. Irrespective of the women's movement of the 1960's, and 'equal pay for equal work' legislation existing in most jurisdictions, women still expect lower pay and reduced benefits within the work force than their male counterparts, a situation that is still prevalent within the industrial and managerial sectors. (This 'inequality' perception was further re-inforced by the Ontario Labour Minister, Robert Elgie, on March 7, 1980, when he issued a statement that he would not re-introduce Bill 3 for final reading. Bill 3 would have effectively killed sex discrimination in pay rates and raised the annual earnings for women from the present \$8,622 to a figure closer to that for men - \$15,255). Since their expectations are lower, they are easier to meet and satisfy.

Hulin and Smith's (1964) covariance theory hypothesizes that the observed sex differences are not due to the influence of sex per se; rather they may be attributed to the entire constellation of variables which consistently covary with sex. These covariant variables are such things as pay, promotion, policies, co-workers, immediate supervision, and the work itself. It is hypothesized by Hulin and Smith (1964), that if these variables were held constant, or if the effects were partialled out, the differences in job satisfaction would have disappeared. In our study these covariant variables remain relatively fixed, and yet a significant sex difference occurs. It is possible, therefore, that the covariance theory has only limited application and does not reliably apply to jobs that historically maintain constant covariant variables.

It was predicted that job satisfaction would be positively correlated to marital status and that married people would display greater job satisfaction than either single or divorced respondents. This significant relationship was found to occur, though the effect was not strong. Divorced respondents were slightly more satisfied with their job than were single people, possibly for reasons discussed earlier. Widowed respondents would have been expected to have the highest job satisfaction, as they compensate for unhappiness in one sphere of their life by becoming more involved with their work. However, our widowed sample size was too small (13) to be of significant value in testing this hypothesis.

Reports by Blood and Hulin (1967) and Wild and Kempner (1972) suggest that the location of employment may have a direct effect on job satisfaction or that it may be an important moderator of job satisfaction. Coupled with Smith, Kendall, and Hulin's (1969) economic-frame-of-reference theory which predicts that workers in communities with high costs and standards of living are less satisfied than workers in other communities, these reports were used to hypothesize a significant relationship between job satisfaction and job location.

This postulated relationship did not exist in our sample. In fact, no area of study was identified as having significantly more or less job satisfied respondents.

Once again, the location of the samples may play an important role in understanding the divergence from prediction. The other studies occurred within areas of the United States, with its different socio-economic frame-



work between inner city core and suburbia. Canada, with a more even diffusion of wealth, and fewer social barriers, might be expected to have a different affect on individuals working in the metropolitan or suburban areas, than occurs south of the border.

It was research hypothesized that type of school and job satisfaction would be significantly related. The 'spillover' effect of life and job satisfaction (Kornhauser, 1965; Iris and Barrett, 1972), coupled with the search for autonomy by upper level instructors, would enable a prediction that elementary teachers were the most satisfied and community college instructors the least satisfied with their jobs. The results were as predicted, though, the strength of the relationship (significance = 0.000) was unexpected.

Results obtained by many authors (Near, Rice, and Hunt, 1978; Quinn and Shepard, 1974; Locke, 1976; Seashore and Taber, 1976; Shackmuth, 1979) led to a prediction that job satisfaction would be significantly related to job title. Principals would be expected to be more work satisfied than department heads, who, in turn, would be expected to be more work satisfied than teachers. This hypothesis was supported by the results of the experiment. However, if one considers only the 'very satisfied' category, the results indicate a curvilinear relationship, similar to that reported by Ebeling, King, and Rogers (1979).

The hypothesized, positive relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction did not occur. All levels of experience appeared similarly satisfied with work.

Several possible explanations could account for this discrepancy: Lack of promotional pressure, social motivation for entering the profession, satisfaction of worthwhile accomplishment, relatively high financial

return, educational achievement of the respondents, ample available time for pursuing other life interests, and homogeneity of the sample. Each of these has been discussed earlier.

However, if the 'very satisfied' column is examined, a U-shaped relationship is observed. This U-shaped relationship is consistent with Herzberg, et al. (1957). These authors found high job satisfaction when individuals commenced their first job, since they would have high, initial work expectations. As these expectations became unrealized, job satisfaction declined. This decline continued until their late twenties or early thirties, when job satisfaction once again began to rise, due to adjusted and more realistic expectations gained through experience.

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

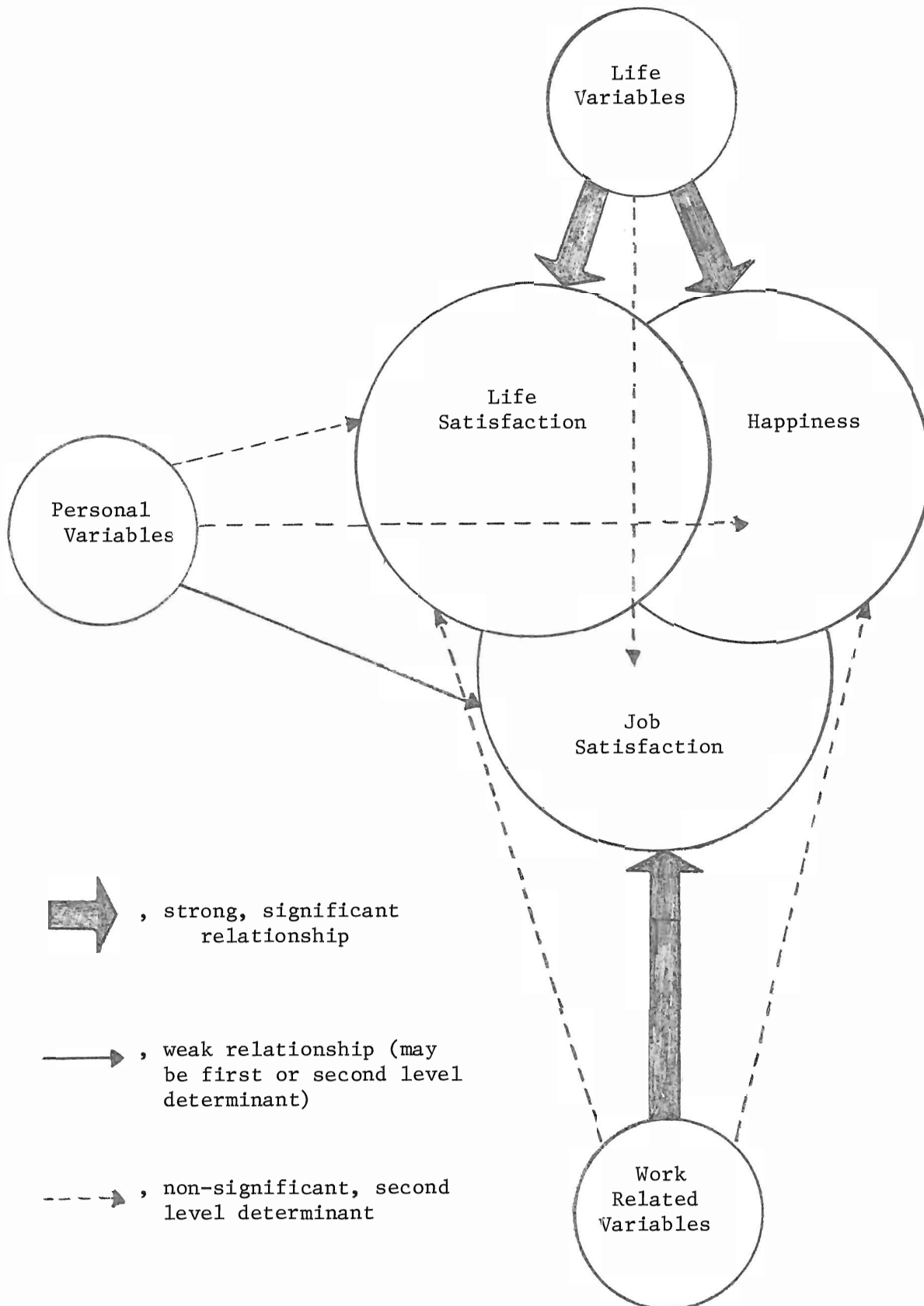
The present study was guided by Near, Rice and Hunt's (1978) multiple component model of life satisfaction and associated first and second order determinants. This model shows that job satisfaction represents only a small portion of the total life satisfaction concept, and it seems to work well for heterogeneous general population samples.

However, when applied to teachers, the model is less than successful. The results show that job satisfaction, life satisfaction and happiness have a high significant relationship with each other. Instead of job satisfaction appearing as only a small portion of the other organizational variables, it seems to interact equally with life satisfaction and happiness. Marital status and type of school are significantly related to each of the organizational variables.

These results led to the development of the Variable Inter-relationship Model for Teachers illustrated in Figure III. The three organizational variables are represented by large interconnecting circles. Life variables (satisfaction with home, marital status, health, etc.) are shown to contribute regularly and significantly to happiness and life satisfaction (i.e., as first level determinants), while acting as second level (non significant) determinants of job satisfaction. In some cases, a life variable may have sufficiently high correlation to act as a first level determinant of job satisfaction (e.g. marital status), though, this is a rare exception.

Work related variables (job tenure, income, job title, type of

FIGURE III

VARIABLE INTERRELATIONSHIP MODEL FOR TEACHERS

school, etc.) are shown to contribute regularly and significantly to job satisfaction, while acting as second level determinants of life satisfaction and happiness. In some cases, a work related variable may have sufficiently high correlation to act as a first level determinant of life satisfaction and happiness (e.g. type of school), though, this is a rare exception.

Personal variables (sex, age, education, etc.) are represented as second level determinants of life satisfaction, happiness, and job satisfaction. However, they have a more dramatic effect on job satisfaction and some may interact as first level determinants (e.g. sex, education).

Apparently, teachers tend to interrelate their job and life to a greater degree than the general population. A significant 'spillover' occurs among the three organizational variables, with satisfaction (or lack of it) with any one variable being carried over to the other two variables. Teachers do not compensate for dissatisfaction in one area by finding more enjoyment in other aspects of life.

The very nature of teaching might have led one to hypothesize the close association of the three organizational variables. Teachers tend to involve themselves seriously in their work, beyond that required by their employer. They organize and/or participate in dances, plays, sporting events, winter carnivals, etc., on a volunteer basis. Also, they prepare lessons, mark papers, and evaluate students during periods away from the actual job location. Thus, the interrelationship of life and job occurs as a natural result of the profession's accepted responsibilities.

This conceptualization of the data suggests four interesting conclusions. First, contrary to some recently published reports, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and happiness may significantly affect each other and correlate to a high degree. Second, homogeneous samples tend to show results that are divergent from those obtained on heterogeneous samples. More research should be attempted on other homogeneous samples similar to teachers (nurses, engineers, etc.), to ascertain if the results obtained in this study refer to homogeneous groups in general, or only to teachers in particular. Third, the extrapolation of American data to Canadian situations is fraught with danger unless careful consideration is given to socio-economic and ethnic variances that are present. Far more research needs to be attempted in Canada, instead of immediately accepting American conclusions as being generally applicable. Finally, it appears that job satisfaction and life satisfaction research would benefit from a broader perspective than is now, with few exceptions, adopted by organizational researchers. The data and the proposed model suggest that factors outside the immediate workplace environment can influence job satisfaction.

The conceptual model proposed here is speculative and requires further refinement and testing. Serious research must continue into both the first and second level determinants of job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and happiness, with special emphasis being placed on the cause and strength of individual relationships. The present study is seen as a preliminary step in assessing the interrelationships of the three organizational variables and their determining demographic variables.

Had more time been available, an extension of this study to other homogeneous, educated populations might have been considered. Do all homogeneous groups exhibit the same interrelationship of variables shown by teachers? Are teachers' attitudes unique, or do other professions (nurses, lawyers, social workers, etc.) profess similar concepts?

Also, another interesting study could be performed five years from now when declining enrolment has seriously depleted the younger teacher ranks. Will happiness and satisfaction with job and life show similar results in a significantly older teacher population? Will decreasing relative salaries cause negative attitudes within the teaching population?

For the time being, however, this study might be of use to teaching administrators in helping them understand the motivational aspects of their employees. Awareness of teacher attitudes should lead to a more positive interaction, and needs assessment, in a demoralizing time of position decline.

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APPENDIX 1Means and Standard Deviations

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Cases</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Std. Dev.</u>
Life satisfaction	1988	1.9019	0.5076
Job satisfaction	1986	20.9154	3.2813
Happiness	1984	1.8281	0.5438
Income	1975	2.9767	1.0113
Age	1993	2.5966	0.8382
Education	1982	2.0323	0.6680
Sex	1977	1.4603	0.4996
Marital status	1978	1.8579	0.5193
Type of school	1943	1.6454	0.6517
Location	1983	2.4473	0.9419
Title	1984	1.6426	1.2989
Overall	1993	3.2258	0.9560

APPENDIX 2Intercorrelations of Variables

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
(1) Life satisfaction	1.0	-.32	.70	.04	.04	.07	-.01	-.05	.06	.02
(2) Job satisfaction	-.32	1.0	-.35	-.05	-.02	-.02	.04	.06	-.1	.01
(3) Happiness	.70	-.35	1.0	.02	.05	.03	.01	-.06	.05	-.01
(4) Income	.04	-.05	.02	1.0	.42	.47	-.42	.12	.28	-.06
(5) Age	.04	.02	.05	.42	1.0	.07	-.13	.21	.14	-.003
(6) Education	.07	-.02	.03	.47	.07	1.0	-.32	.01	.22	-.04
(7) Sex	-.01	.04	.01	-.42	-.13	-.32	1.0	-.05	-.16	.02
(8) Marital status	-.05	.06	-.06	.12	.21	.01	-.05	1.0	.03	.02
(9) Type of school	.06	-.1	.05	.28	.14	.22	-.16	.03	1.0	-.1
(10) Location	.02	.01	.01	-.06	-.003	-.04	.02	.02	-.1	1.0
(11) Title	.01	-.03	.02	.14	.14	.12	-.05	.02	.17	-.18
(12) Overall	.02	-.01	.03	.69	.61	.13	-.16	.20	-.03	.04